

THE CHARITIES REVIEW

Volume IX

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Number 9

History of American Philanthropy. The REVIEW has had under preparation for some time a historical study of "American philanthropy of the nineteenth century." The purpose in view has been to bring to bear on the present problems of American social workers a concise knowledge of the historical evolution through which the charities of the country have passed during the century. The divisions of the subject, with the writers of the respective papers, are as follows: .

Institutional care of destitute adults, Robert W. Hebbert, secretary of the New York state board of charities.

Defectives: the insane, feeble-minded, and epileptic, Dr. Peter M. Wise, president of the New York state commission in lunacy.

Hospitals, dispensaries, and nursing, Dr. Henry M. Hurd, superintendent of the Johns Hopkins hospital.

Destitute, neglected, and delinquent children, Homer Folks, secretary of the New York state charities aid association.

Care and relief of needy families, Edward T. Devine, general secretary of the charity organization society of the city of New York.

(The treatment of criminals, if included in the series, will be written

by Charlton T. Lewis, president of the prison association of New York.)

Supervisory and educational movements, Jeffrey R. Brackett, lecturer on public aid, charity, and correction, Johns Hopkins university.

Preventive work, Joseph Lee, Boston.

After publication in the REVIEW, it is expected to issue the entire series in book form. The first section of the paper by Mr. Folks appears elsewhere in this number, and the publication of the entire series will be completed as rapidly as regard for the other interests which fill our pages will permit.

Authoritative Value of the Review.

Our readers may often have felt an interest to know something about the sources of our editorial notes. The value of any note depends, first, upon the timeliness of its subject matter, second, upon the accuracy of its facts, and, third, upon the range of experience in the subject of the writer who interprets the facts. We offer in the following paragraph some account of the methods by which we meet these three requirements.

The field of the REVIEW, which is, in a word, current social thought and effort, is one difficult to cover.

The well defined departments of social effort already carefully organized, the care of dependents, the reform of delinquents, the housing and treatment of defectives, afford few editorial problems other than those presented in overcoming the inertia of officials and lay workers weighted down each with the burdens and responsibilities of two men—a phenomenon seen in business and professional life often, in "charity" work invariably. But the still tentative expressions of social consciousness acting constructively for a better social life, typified best in the municipal "reforms" of such men as Mayor Quincy, backed by such civic sentiment as made Colonel Waring's work possible, take on a rapid succession of new forms in new places, of essential variation in old forms, which at times completely discourages the social student who would keep track of them all. No periodical in the country, however, has at its command a more carefully organized system for mastering these difficulties than the REVIEW. In the first place, every current periodical, American and English, is examined regularly by some member of the editorial staff for any references,—and there are many,—to social topics. Correspondents on the continent keep us informed of such matters of interest there as we do not receive in our regular foreign exchanges. In the second place, we have an elaborate newspaper clipping service, through which we are supposed to be kept informed,—which is not always the case,—as to every

occurrence of social significance taking place each day anywhere in this country. A similar service is now under consideration for English news. Finally, and most important of all, is the information received through daily conversation and correspondence with specialists in nearly every department of social effort in all sections of the country. Some of our correspondents are so regular as practically to constitute so many additions to our editorial staff. Others communicate with us whenever in their judgment something has occurred in their field which we should note. Still others hold themselves ready to investigate and inform us accurately about any local occurrence concerning which we may inquire. And to these we may add, and in practice do add, a great body of intelligent men and women in every department of social work, any one of whom, though a stranger to the REVIEW, will accede promptly to any specific request for information we may make. Experience fully justifies our claim as to the efficiency of this system of correspondence, though it is an unpaid service, as is that of the able body of experts who act as associate editors and advisers of the REVIEW. This free-will service, often exacting and laborious, is of itself a significant social phenomenon.

Suppose that from one of these numerous sources, say from the least trustworthy, the newspaper clippings, some fact of social interest is brought to our attention. Frequently the same fact reaches us

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from several independent sources. If, on comparison of these various accounts with one another and with our experience as to what is the probable truth in the case, it seems necessary or desirable to have verification, or additional facts, not known to our regular editorial staff, some trustworthy correspondent, or several correspondents, are asked to investigate and report to us. Sometimes this is a matter of a few days, sometimes of months. When a reliable statement is in hand as to the fact, we are ready to insert its gist as a note in the REVIEW. Should it seem desirable, however, to interpret or give an opinion about the fact, if it is one of local interest, a local authority upon whom we can rely, and we have such in nearly every section of the country, is asked to express an opinion for use in our editorial columns. If it is, on the other hand, a technical matter in some particular department of work, our specialist in that department takes it in charge. The editors having supervision of these special departments are as follows:

The insane, Dr. P. M. Wise, president of the New York state commission in lunacy;

The feeble-minded, Dr. J. F. Fitzgerald, superintendent of the state custodial asylum at Rome, N. Y.;

The epileptic, Dr. William B. Spratling, superintendent of the Craig colony for epileptics;

Hospitals and Dispensaries, Dr. Stephen Smith, of the New York state board of charities;

Dependent and delinquent children, Homer Folks, secretary of the New York state charities aid association;

Charity organization, Edward T. Devine, general secretary of the charity organization society of the city of New York;

State charity boards and commissions, Robert W. Heberd, secretary of the New York state board of charities.

Other associate editors are called upon frequently for advice in the departments with which their names, printed elsewhere, are naturally associated.

Thus, in matters of fact, our readers are assured in every case of a statement coming from some one close enough to the situation to get the truth. Often matters of which the daily papers are full are not mentioned in the REVIEW till one or two months later, when we can make a statement that is trustworthy. Often such matters, after being investigated by us, are dropped altogether, having been based on newspaper rumor or ill will. In matters of judgment and opinion, again, the editorial columns of the REVIEW represent in nearly every case the work of a specialist in the subject under consideration.

A third class of matter which enters our editorial pages is a résumé of the most important social literature of the month. The opinions and facts thus quoted, for which, though we think them worth bringing to the attention of our readers, we are not responsible, are inserted in closely printed paragraphs. Whenever we may comment on such quotations our own matter is distinguishable in that it is printed in lines more widely spaced.

Editorials vs. Articles. That portion of the REVIEW given to articles is in reality a continuation of the editorial columns. The only difference is that the articles relate

to subjects which involve an investigation or explanation too long to be inserted in the editorial columns; that sometimes the subject is one of continuing rather than of specially current interest; and that writers of signed articles (unsigned articles are editorial) are permitted to express opinions with which the editors may not necessarily be in agreement. Though its articles are in almost every case prepared by request, in accordance with a definite program laid out months and years in advance, the REVIEW always has room for any one who has something worth saying on any subject within its field, whether the editors agree with the writer or not.

**Doctors
as
Social
Workers.**

The *Hospital*, itself an excellent illustration of the plan which it advocates, urges that the numerous medical associations in existence everywhere take an active part in public discussion and legislative effort regarding social questions. The doctor's almost daily familiarity with "the poor as they are," that is, under conditions which practically eliminate humbugging, gives him a broad understanding of and sympathy with their lives. The *Hospital* thinks that the medical profession owes it to the community to make active use of this practical social experience.

Why should not these societies apply themselves to a careful and statesmanlike consideration of the problems arising out of the existence and the necessities of the poor? Why should they not prepare them-

selves to furnish sound arguments to their representatives [in legislative bodies], to support a judicious measure, or to oppose an injudicious one, by memorials containing careful reasoning based upon unassailable information? If they would do this they would not only immeasurably raise the profession in the estimation of the public, but they would also pave the way for the favorable consideration of reforms by which the profession itself would be more immediately affected.

Many individual doctors, both in this country and in England, devote much of their time to social work, and more than once medical associations have taken active part in discussion of local questions affecting at once their own interests and those of the poor. But the appeal of the *Hospital* for a recognition, among those questions which occupy the attention of medical societies, of the broader social problems of the poor is one which we heartily second. If ever a "solution" of such problems is to be found, it will be after the conditions given have been studied through and through. "Know thyself" has given place, in the rising social consciousness of the day, to "Know thy neighbor"—of the tenement court; know the conditions which make him too often the slave of a day-to-day struggle for bare animal existence; which bring him, perhaps an able-bodied man, to our workhouses; which guarantee him, taken as he is, not as we think he should be, an old age of want. And who is better able to help in this study of facts than the physician, whose practice, especially

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An illustration of the service the physician can do in bringing his trained intellect and advantages of practical observation to bear on social questions is brought out in the president's address¹ at the meeting last May of the Ohio state pediatric society.

This physician, Dr. D. L. Moore, had from time to time had occasion to treat children coming from the "county homes" of the state. He observed that in some cases they were, plainly speaking, hungry when they came to the hospital. On ordinary hospital diet they so quickly lost their "institutional" expression and color that the suggestion was inevitable that something was wrong with the quality (not quantity) of their food. This led to an investigation, from which it became patent that the dietary in the various children's institutions of the state should be regularly subject to intelligent supervision from some central authority. There seemed to be no question that the food supplied was abundant, but in a number of cases it was clearly innutritious. With the co-operation of the board of state charities this matter will doubtless soon be arranged. Here was a case, evidently, not of ill intent, but simply of lack of intelligent study of food supply on the part of superintendents of institutions, a difficulty which was quickly corrected when a thoughtful man, under no official obligation to trouble himself, took the pains to

study the matter and bring the results of his investigation to the attention of the proper authorities.

Dr. Moore, in connection with his food investigation, discovered some eighty children in the county homes of his state having disease or deformity requiring—what they are not receiving—surgical or orthopedic care. In view of the fact that persons wishing to adopt children generally demand that they be physically perfect, and that such children have therefore practically no prospect of adoption, Dr. Moore urges, as has been so often done in several states, that a state hospital and home be established for indigent crippled or deformed children, whether from institutions or from private homes. Here permanent cripples might be made as easy as possible, while those for whom there is a chance would be treated and sent out into life with far better physical capital than they would otherwise have.

In another section of his *Medical Inspection in Schools*, Dr. Moore calls on his medical friends to exert their influence to secure daily medical inspection in all schools. This plan has been tried in Boston, New York, Chicago, and Philadelphia with remarkable success in lowering the number of cases of contagious children's diseases, to say nothing of the ultimate effect which such inspections must have in bringing morbidity due to school life under constant study, if not treatment. While only the large cities have been

¹ Published in the *Ohio Bulletin of Charities and Correction* for June, 1899.

willing to undertake it, on account of the expense, there is no reason small towns should not at least attempt it. Dr. Moore estimates that even in a city of 100,000 inhabitants one inspector, with the coöperation of the health department and the teachers, can do a great deal toward checking at least contagious diseases, and, he adds, there can always be found in the [medical] profession a volunteer to do the work. Here, again, is an instance of the service physicians can render in social work. Active effort on the part of the medical association in any city may secure for that city the benefits of this daily inspection, which must lead ultimately, hand in hand with the new physiological economics, to better physical manhood and womanhood, capable of supporting a broader social life.

CITY PROBLEMS.

New York's Subsidy System. The article contributed to the last number of the REVIEW on "the reform of the subsidy system," closes with a reference to Reverend Father Kinkead's letter advocating the plan of public payments for the services rendered to the city by private agencies in the care of destitute persons. The discussion has since been continued by a rejoinder to this letter from Mr. Homer Folks, secretary of the state charities aid association, published in *Charities* of October 7. It is pointed out that in Father Kinkead's letter there is nothing inconsistent with the specific recommendations submitted by the

state charities aid association, many of which were embodied in the comptroller's plan as finally submitted to the board of estimate and apportionment. Father Kinkead's conclusions upon fundamental questions of policy differ, however, from those of the charity organization society, the state charities aid association, and others whose views were presented in the appendices to the letter sent by the charity organization society to the comptroller. These general principles are discussed in Mr. Folks's letter.

The first important point to be emphasized is that the public should administer its charity in such a way as not to discourage private citizens or benevolent organizations from undertaking charitable work. The danger of the subsidy system is that it constantly tends to supplant rather than supplement private charity. The figures which Father Kinkead had presented to demonstrate that public aid does not discourage private benevolence are analyzed, and it is found that a large part of that which is put down as coming from private sources is not really in the nature of private contributions. It includes, for example, amounts received "from individuals (relatives or other friends) for the support of inmates; money borrowed; money received from dividends on investments; and a very large item from all other sources." Mr. Folks is unwilling to include interest on the cost of buildings and ground as a present contribution from benevolent sources. At least it does not indicate that the subsidy plan has not tended to discourage private contributions, since many, if not most, of the valuable sites were secured before the

subsidy established. of support should be given to the city, it is believed that the citizens largely will bear the 20,000 dollars by the city itself. Experience with small property should, in the public interest, be a number which is a part of the city. It would be better to have the institution experience either systematic payments in arrears or charges. private institutions are more cheaply available to the public than the per capita cost of the subsidies should be cared for. It is so much better in which the city is between the private agency and done by the city.

Mr. Ford said that the party's inherent tendency to favor of secure ready control of the institutions, which has been a board of management upon which it will go far in the result, even much more in the coming year.

Statistics of Cities

1898 to cop

subsidy system became generally established. In case the present system of supporting destitute children should be discontinued in New York city, it is by no means to be supposed that the city will need to build institutions large enough to accommodate the 20,000 children now supported by the city in private institutions. Experience shows that only a very small proportion of these children should, in fact, become inmates of public institutions. If this small number were turned over to the care of the city they might or might not be better cared for than in private institutions. There is considerable experience upon which critics of either system might draw for arguments in support of unfavorable charges. Again, it is denied that private institutions do their work more cheaply, for the aggregate cost to the public is greater, though the per capita cost is less, since under the subsidy system the number to be cared for at the public expense is so much greater than in a system in which there is a rigid separation between that which is done by private agencies and that which is done by the state.

Mr. Folks, although convinced that the present system is not inherently the most desirable, is in favor of making every effort to secure reasonable and proper control of the payments to private institutions, and the favorable action which has already been taken by the board of estimate and apportionment upon the comptroller's report will go far toward accomplishing this result, even though it may not save much money to the city for the coming year.

The United States commissioner of labor was authorized by congress in 1898 to compile and publish annually,

as a part of the *Bulletin* of the department of labor, an abstract of the main features of the official statistics of the cities of the United States having over 30,000 population. In the September number of the *Bulletin* appears the first report of the department, in accordance with this law. The material for the tables given has been prepared, for the most part, under the direction of special agents of the department, and accordingly possesses a trustworthy statistical value. These tables have been constructed to facilitate the study of impending municipal problems, and they open to the social student a wealth of material heretofore collected only with great difficulty, and more or less uncertainty, by individual specialists. For instance, the statistics of crime and police are in parallel columns with that giving the number of retail liquor saloons; the table of deaths by causes includes the statistics regarding sanitary and food inspection.

Of extraordinary interest are the tables giving the percentage of deaths from each specified cause of total deaths. "Consumption," probably not including all forms of tuberculosis, heads the list with an average for all cities of nearly eleven per cent, reaching a maximum of twenty-six per cent at Denver, the refuge of the hopeless. Pneumonia, heart disease, and "violence" succeed in order of importance. Under the heading "all other causes" is classified perhaps thirty per cent of all deaths, a convenient summary which

indicates that the proportions given to other columns are doubtless under-estimates. The table of city almshouses, orphan asylums, and hospitals, confining itself to institutions strictly municipal, leaves much in the same chaotic state as formerly our vague information as to how the care of the dependent and defective classes is divided between city, county, state, and private charity. Still, to have a definite statement regarding one of these four classes is helpful, and, doubtless, better than an inaccurate guess at the whole would have been. Altogether, these statistics are more than welcome, and will be increasingly so as their annual repetition brings in many improvements and elaborations impracticable in this first attempt. In this work we have an illustration of the value, actual and potential, of the United States department of labor,—which is unquestionably the best equipped institution in the country for the collection and interpretation of social data. The time will be welcome when, either as an enlargement of the functions of this department, or as an independent department, we have a national bureau of charities and correction, organized on a scale commensurate with the vast work with which the institutions of private philanthropy, such as the national conference, the prison association, and this REVIEW, can only inadequately cope.

The few earnest men and women who have been trying for the last two or three years to arouse a public senti-

**Reform in
New Orleans.**

ment in Louisiana which will place that state on a par in matters of charities and correction with its more humane sister states have accomplished much. But it seems that they have as yet scarcely made an impression on New Orleans, where certain conditions still exist which would surprise some of the good citizens of that town were they to interest themselves to investigate. The police jail of the city is such that "in the dark middle ages no worse prison existed." But as it is hoped to have a new jail soon, plans for which are already drawn, this is not so bad. Apparently worse, however, are the lockups, in which vagrants are kept over night. These have been compared, in hygienic condition, to the black hole of Calcutta. Doubtless almost as unfavorable a view might be taken of the tramp rooms in the police stations of any city, wherever this method of lodging the city's guests is still in vogue. We see little use in trying to improve the sanitary arrangements of such places. Homeless men and women ought never to be allowed to enter them, but should be sent to a central municipal lodging-house, such as the city of New York maintains, where they can be given a bath, medical inspection, and such an investigation of their ways of living as promptly separates the professional vagrant from the man who is earnestly in search of work, sending the one to the workhouse—not an ideal solution, we confess—and affording the other a clean night's rest under healthful

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and respectable, though severely plain, conditions. With the vagrant out of the way, it is a much simpler problem to make the lockup a suitable habitat for its proper inmate, the prisoner temporarily confined there.

When the new jail is secured, the question will be how far the conditions which held at the old jail will be continued. For instance, poor persons committed to the state insane asylum have heretofore been confined at the jail with the regular prisoners, sometimes, owing to the overcrowded condition of the state hospital, for months at a time. It seems as though in some hospital already established, or in a hospital department in the new jail, these unfortunate persons might be kept under conditions which would recognize in them patients needing hospital treatment, rather than criminals deserving only the confinement of a cell. It is becoming more and more certain that in acute cases of insanity the treatment of the first few days and months will determine, if anything will, whether the patient is to be saved for a life of normal independence, or whether he is to become a life charge on the community. So from considerations merely of economy, it is worth while to put him immediately under expert surveillance and treatment.

Another feature characteristic of the old jail, as of so many jails throughout the country, is a failure to classify prisoners with reference to one another, or even with reference to persons, including minors,

held as witnesses. It is to be hoped that the facilities for crime-breeding this system provides will be wanting in the new jail. Again, there is at present no work for prisoners, so that there are petty offenders who rather enjoy living here as guests of the taxpayers. The local prison reform association has endeavored to secure legislation which will improve the existing prison system, but public opinion is not yet sufficiently behind it to carry its measures through.

*Homeless Men
in Cincinnati.*

Cincinnati, like so many other cities, has been lodging homeless men in its police station. As many as 300 in a single night have been crowded into the basement room provided for them. There they slept on the stone floor, with the heat of a large stove to aid in volatilizing whatever possibilities of atmospheric vitiation —well, as elsewhere, the normal conditions are indescribable. The associated charities has undertaken to relieve the situation by receiving at its labor yard all men who may be sent it from the station-house. There they will be given lodging and breakfast in return for an hour's work for lodging, an hour for a meal, or half an hour for a lunch. The experiment is already under way, and it is believed by the society that it can take care of any number of men that may be sent to it. This depends, of course, upon the co-operation of the citizens at large in creating a market for the products of the labor yard, and in supporting the expenses of the in-

stitution. Herein lies one advantage of the municipal lodging-house, in that its expenses are paid by all the citizens alike. It is, however, more difficult for a municipal institution to apply the work test, as the work done, to avoid open conflict with the "free laborer," must be directly on municipal account, which necessarily excludes such convenient schemes for the use of unskilled labor as woodyards.

**Outdoor Relief
versus
Almshouses.**

The Bridgeport, Connecticut, *Farmer* of October 5 states that the mayor of that city, upon returning from the sessions of the league of American municipalities, held at Syracuse in September, reported to the commissioners of charities of Bridgeport the arguments addressed to the league in favor of the abolition of public outdoor relief in large cities. The almshouse commissioners of Bridgeport, being interviewed upon the subject, did not favor the plan, for the reason, among others, that, in their opinion, the city would have to increase its almshouse to three times the present size. This view overlooks the historical fact, stated in the paper read at Syracuse, that whenever the distribution of public outdoor relief has been discontinued, there has not been a corresponding increase, but rather a decrease, in the number of inmates of almshouses and other public institutions. If the alternative of public outdoor relief were the placing of all its former recipients in almshouses, there might be some question

as to the wisdom of its abolition, but nothing is more firmly established than the fact that a large majority of those who seek and secure outdoor relief would not go to an almshouse.

**Segregation
of Saloons.** In the *Outlook* for September 23 Mr. W. S. Harwood describes the experience of Minneapolis in weeding out saloons from its resident quarters.

Fifteen years ago a movement was started to restrict the then rapidly expanding liquor business of the city to a certain one-twelfth section of its entire area, as far removed from the "homes" [doubtless not from slum homes] of the people as possible. A very largely signed petition, vigorously indorsed by the mayor, led the city council to pass an ordinance to this effect. A test of the ordinance was, of course, at once made up by the brewery interests, but its validity was sustained by the supreme court of the state. The chief argument of the city attorney was that municipalities have a right to regulate the location of certain businesses, slaughter-houses, etc.; to restrict traffic on boulevards; hence to determine the limits of any business. Following this, lest another city council should reverse or invalidate the action of this one, the state legislature was induced, after a vigorous fight, to incorporate the provisions of the ordinance in the city charter.

For fifteen years there has been no success to the steady efforts of the saloonkeepers to overthrow or extend the limits fixed at first, while popular approval has as steadily increased in favor of the policy. Mr. Harwood considers the results

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obtained so favorable as to warrant the extension of the plan to other, especially western, municipalities.

**Vacant-Lot
Cultivation.**

Readers of the REVIEW will remember that last year we published a very complete study of vacant-lot cultivation in this country,¹ prepared for us by the Philadelphia vacant-lots cultivation association. At that time it was felt by some that this plan has indirect consequences which make it an unwise form of philanthropy. At the close of another year's experience this association has issued a circular about its work which constitutes the most concise brief for vacant-lot cultivation we have seen. After asserting that it is a charity in the truest sense of the term, the following claims are presented in detail:

It is an employment agency for those who are least able to work; we find employment for the old, the lame, the deaf, the physically unable to do a full day's labor.

It is a school in which those most in need of instruction are taught in the most practical way a new vocation, without any loss of time or expense to themselves and at a very slight cost to the community. Nearly three hundred families are in attendance this season.

It is a health resort for those most in need of improved health. The food thus secured is always fresh and wholesome; the air is pure and invigorating; the work develops strength and occupies the mind.

It is an agricultural experiment station where various crops are tested and the different methods of

cultivation and fertilizing are tried. The advantages of good cultivation are clearly shown, by comparing gardens that are side by side.

It lessens the necessity of fresh air funds, country week funds, etc., and makes the unpleasant work of investigation into worthiness of applicants a useless labor. It is an automatic separator. Any one who works his garden well and who can find no better employment is proven worthy, while he who does not cultivate his garden well thereby proves himself unworthy and loses the opportunity. Those who can find better employment always take it in preference to a garden.

Some of the reasons why it pays the community to encourage and support this work:

First—It is the best method yet devised of aiding the poor without pauperizing them, and furthermore, each dollar contributed is multiplied from three to eight times before it reaches the one for whose aid it was given, and every cent reaches a worthy person—one who is willing to work for his or her own living.

Second—It educates; it elevates; it renews hope.

Third—As the work increases, the cost per garden decreases. The second year we increased the number of gardens seventy per cent over the first, and the cost per garden to the association was decreased thirty per cent, while this year, the third, the number of gardens has been increased over last year seventy-five per cent, and the cost per garden will be again reduced almost, if not fully, thirty per cent, and we are confident that each dollar contributed this season will be increased at least fivefold.

We should be glad to have some

¹Reprinted in pamphlet form, 34 pp., 15 cents. Some copies of this reprint are still available.

of our correspondents bring out the other side of this interesting question, for there certainly is another side, and varying experiences, just as with the many agricultural colonies which have existed with varying success in this country and in Europe.

The federation of churches Tenements in Pittsburgh. of Pittsburgh has interested itself in tenement conditions. "Sixty persons sleeping (half by night and half by day, apparently) in three small rooms contaminated by two typhoid fever sufferers" is one of the discoveries which has been made by the Allegheny department of charities. Ten to fifteen boarders, mostly Hungarians, in one room seems to be the normal state of affairs in a certain section of the city. Clearly there is room here for public interest and action.

These boarders, explains a local paper, as a rule buy and cook their own food. When they return from work they purchase a piece of cheap meat and the other provisions required for their meal. They each tie a piece of string with a wooden or metal check attached about their meat, to designate their portion of the meal, and the meat is tossed into one large kettle and boiled. When cooked, each piece of meat is taken from the pot by its owner and eaten with a quantity of beer. This condition of affairs has resulted in sickness and crime in Lower Allegheny, and unless these overcrowded boarding-houses are abolished much disease will result.

The officers of the Allegheny bureau of health have just about completed a systematic inspection

of the Woods Run district and have furnished Superintendent McLaughlin with information which will result probably in a wholesale number of arrests and suits. Major McLaughlin about two years ago made a persistent crusade against the overcrowded tenement and boarding-house landlords which resulted in fifty-three arrests and prosecutions.

Similar interest has been Montreal's Poor. awakened in Montreal,

where a meeting of active citizens was recently held to consider the relations of the community to its poor. Montreal has a death rate of twenty-six. From eleven to thirty-nine per cent of the population in certain districts is living in rear tenements. There are in the city upward of five thousand cesspools and privy-pits. Here, too, there is clearly room for public interest and action.

Workmen's Houses Bill. The London *Hospital* enters a protest against

the popular measure which has been brought forward enabling local governments to make advances to householders to facilitate the purchase of their dwellings. Aside from questions of the business risks the scheme involves, it is the opinion of the *Hospital* that any large extension of the plan of working people becoming owners of their dwellings should be regarded with great suspicion from a sanitary and public health point of view. Every new development of municipal sanitation makes it the more essential that the sanitary authority should be able to get at a solvent and responsible owner for every house within its area. It is the universal experience of sanitary authorities

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that house property held by impudent owners is most difficult to deal with. The workman living in his own house is almost always an obstructive. He "puts up with" bad drains, he "puts up with" damp walls and imperfect plumbing, rather than spend a penny in putting things right, whereas if he were an ordinary rent-paying tenant he would set the whole sanitary machinery of his town in operation (at the town's expense) to make his landlord put things in order.

**Exodus
from Lower
New York.**

While we are contriving might and main to bring about certain desirable reforms, often some great economic force slips quietly in and attacks the same problem with far greater success than we could, and with less friction. Such is the case in the lower part of New York city. There for years, and now no less vigorously than ever, efforts have been made to clear out overcrowded tenement districts, and to make living conditions more wholesome for those who remained. But the steadily increasing value of land has made the fight a hard one, for the landlord has each year had to plan more closely and get more out of his tenants to keep pace with the increase in ground rents. He has, therefore, been in little mood to lessen the number of tenants to the building, to sacrifice rentable space for the sake of light and air. But now the same economic pressure has, by its increasing intensity, assumed a new aspect. The value of land for business purposes on the one hand, and on the other, the necessarily high rents of such

tenements as remain, has at last begun appreciably to drive out both tenements and tenants. Such, at least, would seem to be the inference from the recent census of the health board of Manhattan borough, which shows a decrease of population in most of the lower wards of the city, and a corresponding increase in those wards heretofore less thickly populated. Of course, this merely shifts the field of the fight which tenement reformers are waging, for the same conditions will quickly appear in the new centres of population, if not prevented beforehand,—but it is some satisfaction and relief to feel that these old and almost hopeless tenement sections are being cleared out, and by a law which will not fail in its working because of unsympathetic officials or new aldermanic building codes.

**Decrease of
Child Labor.**

Such a law, too, is at work reducing the numbers of children in factories. Years ago these were in great demand as attendants of certain parts of machinery. But the speeding up of machines and the greater complication of machinery have now reached a point beyond the ability or strength of attention of the child, and they are now being dropped out of the factories as an unprofitable investment. The labor commissioner of North Carolina has found that since 1896, with an increase of 100 per cent in the number of men employed in cotton factories and of 50 per cent in the number of women employed, there has been a

decrease of nearly one-half in the number of children at work. The same thing has been noted in New York, and, with less recent statistics, in several other states, also in Germany.

CHILDREN.

Increase in Commitments in New York. The February number of the REVIEW noted the appointment of a special committee by the state board of charities of New York to inquire into the causes of the increase in the number of destitute children in the city of New York during 1898. The report of the committee, of which the late Hon. John Vinton Dahlgren was chairman, has just been made public. Until July, 1897, children were committed to institutions in New York city by the police courts, or were received directly from parents by surrender. Under the rules established by the state board of charities under the revised constitution, it became necessary for all children who were to become public charges by reason of destitution to be accepted as proper subjects of public support by the commissioners of charities of New York city. It naturally resulted from this that parents wishing to have their children committed went first to the charities department for their approval, and that department in July, 1897, began to exercise a power, which it had always possessed, but which had not been exercised for some twenty years, of committing children to private institutions as public charges.

The committee finds that the increase during 1898 was an abnormal

one, and that it is due to three causes:

1. The inexperience of the charities department in committing children.

2. The failure of the department to comply with the rule requiring a yearly reacceptance of each case.

3. A failure of the managers of the institutions to exercise their power of placing children in families.

The committee did not recommend a return to the former system of commitment by magistrates exclusively, for the evidence submitted to it showed that under this system there had been a large annual increase in the number supported by the city prior to 1895. The suggestions of the committee are, in effect, that the acceptance of children as public charges, either upon the original application for their commitment or each year thereafter, shall be based upon the results of an investigation, which are to be reduced to writing, and a copy of which is to be sent to the state board of charities. Each institution is to be required to keep a book in which the name and address of parents, relatives, or other visitors to the children, shall be written at each visit. It is also recommended that the inspectors of the state board of charities should, from time to time, examine into the circumstances of some of the children supported by the city, selecting the cases at random. These suggestions are likely to be adopted by the state board of charities. The report is accompanied by elaborate statistical

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tables of great value. The recommendations are conservative, and are undoubtedly in accord with the sentiments of those who are best informed as to the situation in New York city.

The remarks in the last number of the REVIEW, apropos of the burning of St. Agnes convent at Sparkill, New York, pointing out the need of better fire protection for institutions located in the rural districts, receive added emphasis from the burning of St. Mary's training school at Feehanville, two miles from Desplaines, Illinois, on Sunday afternoon, October 15. The fire originated in the chapel, fortunately, after the close of the Sunday afternoon services. The fire department of Desplaines soon arrived, only to find, according to press reports, that no water could be drawn from the hydrants on the school grounds, and the firemen could do nothing but watch the fire take its course. All of the buildings were burned, the loss being estimated at \$200,000. No lives were lost, and no serious injuries are reported, owing to the fact that the fire originated in the daytime, and in buildings not used for dormitory purposes. It is stated that some seventy boys escaped while the fire was in progress, but forty were recaptured.

The importance of thorough expert inspection of all such institutions located in country districts, with special reference to fire protection, can not be overestimated.

A Restless
Boy.

Wisdom is gained by studying individual cases, as well as from statistics covering large numbers. The following brief biography is of especial interest and should afford encouragement to all who are inclined to despair of boys who "will not stay in their places:"

In 1864, upon the opening of a children's home located in one of our large western cities, the first boy admitted was a homeless lad who had been blacking boots and selling newspapers, and whose feet had been frozen by exposure to the cold. Once he ran away from the children's home, but returned a week later of his own accord. After being in the home about a year he was placed out, but was returned six months later through no fault of his own. Soon afterward he was again placed out, and being returned a little later was restored to the family with whom he had been first placed. Not long after this he was transferred to another family through no fault of his, from which home he ran away twice, but returned of his own accord. A little later he was teaching a district school in winter, working in a saw mill in summer, and studying law both summer and winter. At nineteen years of age he was making addresses in all parts of the state in a political campaign. At twenty-one he was prosecuting attorney of the county, first by appointment, then by election. Then he became the local attorney for an important railway company, from which post by successive promotions he reached the post of general counsel for all the lines under the control of the company. He also became counsel for several large corporations, and is the owner of a number of important

No Water:
Loss,
\$200,000.

enterprises. His professional success and his wealth are not more marked than his charming personality, high character, and useful public services.

HOMER FOLKS.

House of Reformation, Boston. The children's institutions trustees of Boston have succeeded in finding a superintendent who apparently satisfies the requirements of all interested in the management of the Rainsford island institution, including the municipal council. Mr. S. D. Seavey, the new appointee, is a resident of Boston, having been an officer in the state prison at Charlestown for nearly thirty years. It is noticeable that the salary of the position had to be raised to \$2,000 a year before a competent man could be secured. This increase accordingly has been authorized by the mayor.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

The Winter's Plans. Numerous reports are reaching us of annual meetings of societies and of plans for the approaching winter's work. In many sections of the country the charity organization idea is taking favorable root. Two important societies recently organized are those of Columbus, Ohio, and Kansas City. In many other places the work has been reorganized on a more substantial basis. An interesting feature of the winter's program in not a few societies are courses of lectures on social and philanthropic subjects. It seems probable that this winter will be a much easier one for the poor than

we have had before for some years. The society which has limited its efforts strictly to the relief side of our work will now find its hands tied, both from the lack of work to do and from the failure of the public support which is given to relief institutions only when the conditions of life are hard for the poor. It is, therefore, both opportune and advisable that the societies should devote themselves this winter especially to the preventive, or constructive, side of charity organization. Basing their appeals on definite activity toward preventing poverty will bring in this year a more generous support in the average community than the usual plea of the present needs of

On District Work. The report of the committee on district work of the New York charity organization society, prepared by Mrs. C. R. Lowell for the forthcoming annual report of the society, has already been printed in *Charities* and in the *Charities Record*. It is a suggestive statement of the objects of the local or district form of organization in such societies.

Baltimore A. I. C. P. The fiftieth anniversary of the Baltimore association for improving the condition of the poor was held October 16. The history of this society, as outlined at the meeting by Mr. John R. Cary, is full of suggestive experience, to which some reference will be made in the forthcoming historical series of the REVIEW. The points of present interest are

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that the work of this society has so satisfied the city of Baltimore that there is no need felt there of public outdoor relief, that the relief it gives is always administered only after careful, though prompt, investigation, and that in all its work it acts in perfect accord with the other charitable societies of the city.

PRISONERS.

The Hudson Refuge Outbreak.

During a considerable part of the past month the inmates of this institution have been in a state of unrest, culminating in a violent outbreak on the part of some fifty of them, in which windows were smashed and other property destroyed, to the value of four or five hundred dollars in all. At the height of the trouble the sheriff, with a number of deputies sworn in for the occasion, had to be called in to keep order. Fortunately none of the keepers were injured and none of the prisoners allowed to escape. For political reasons, some of the papers of the vicinity, and a few others throughout the state, greatly magnified the occurrence, and from Hudson false reports of a second outbreak were telegraphed over the country in order to add as much as possible to the annoyance of the state and local authorities.

The news of this outbreak has given rise to a vast amount of argument as to the merits and demerits of corporal punishment, it being alleged, on the one hand, that the cessation of this form of disciplining offenders—by order of the new board

of managers appointed by Governor Roosevelt—was responsible for the trouble at the institution. In this connection the state board of charities, which has a certain limited supervision over the institution, and is known to have been averse to the administration of corporal punishment, has come in for a considerable share of criticism.

Those in a position to be familiar with the facts, however, say that for a long time prior to the governor's appointment of the new board, the discipline of both the employés and of the inmates of the institution has been lax; that smashing of windows, the destruction of other property, and escapes were frequent, and that the outbreak which has caused so much comment was simply the culmination of difficulties long existing, certain of the inmates taking advantage of the change of management to bring matters to a crisis.

Corporal punishment is not administered in the other reformatories for women, either public or private, in New York state, and with proper discipline at Hudson, among the employés, from the superintendent down, as well as among the inmates, it can be dispensed with there. Under these circumstances it would seem to be logical to seek to secure this discipline, rather than continue the custom of applying the lash to the backs of the women inmates. This is the course which the new board of managers means to pursue, and at the same time to enforce strict discipline in a more humane and progressive way.

Delinquent Colored Girls in Delaware. For wayward colored girls of Delaware there is at present no provision, the girls' industrial school of the state being reserved, apparently, for white girls. When committed there has been no place for them except through openings kindly made by Roman catholic institutions in other states. It is hoped by colored citizens of the state that a special home may be established for them.

West Virginia Executions. From being the least progressive state as regards the execution of condemned murderers, West Virginia has at last joined her sister states and dispensed with public hangings. These used, by common custom, to be made the occasion in the rural districts of the state of a general holiday, people flocking to the hanging from miles around. Now the execution of the death sentence has been removed from the county sheriffs and will be undertaken by the state, in the penitentiary at Moundsville, with no public witnesses other than are now usual in such states as New York and Ohio.

Death Penalty for Incurables. California, the state which recently proposed to exclude tuberculous health seekers from its boundaries, but wisely decided instead to segregate those consumptives it already has in its institutions, has now under consideration a proposition to put to death by some painless process such recidivists as have been found by a competent commission to be incurables. The proposition is interest-

ing, as is the revival of the use of the whipping post now talked about in several states, but for the present it must be set along with those other possibilities of a future socialism, the sterilizing of defectives and euthanasia of the hopelessly insane. These things are interesting to speculate about, but we must set them aside now as wholly inexpedient,—doubtless to wake up some morning to find that one or other of them has been adopted by society *en masse* as a wise and humane measure.

Home for Discharged Prisoners. The John Howard industrial home for discharged prisoners of Massachusetts has recently secured a 100-acre farm at Bridgewater for the temporary employment of discharged prisoners. Besides farm work there will be other means of earning money established from time to time as circumstances warrant. A shop has already been opened for re-caning chairs, the trade of which is expected to come from the local village. The management is finding everywhere a hearty response to its efforts in behalf of the men it aids.

THE INSANE.

Insanity Among Criminals. In a letter to the Boston *Herald* of September 19 Dr. Walter Channing, a recognized expert in matters relating to the criminal insane, takes up the discussion which has grown out of the large increase in the number of insane inmates transferred last year from the Elmira reformatory to the New York state hospital for insane criminals.

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Dr. Channing first reminds his readers that insanity is now a relative term, and that, while the community contains many mentally diseased persons, only those are technically adjudged insane whose disease has so far developed that its subjects must, for their own benefit and that of society, be placed under restraint. What is true of the community at large is even more true of the criminal class. Many of them, long before any outbreak has taken place, are the victims of mental disease, and, although this may be at the very foundation of the overt act committed, they are sent to prison as sane criminals, and may, perhaps, serve out an entire sentence as such. Further, as we now know pretty well, a large percentage of criminals are degenerates, often of feeble will power and defective judgment, or are feeble-minded, and it is not difficult to see that a very little additional strain will result in mental disease in such persons. It has been my experience, over and over again, to examine criminals shortly after conviction who must have been insane for years, and also to find that quite a number had already been in lunatic hospitals, and yet their true condition had, at the time of trial, not been discovered. It is one of the very serious defects of the administration of justice in this country, as well as in others, that more careful mental and physical examinations are not made of criminals before receiving sentence. If this were done, we should find a considerable falling off in the number of those sentenced to prisons, and an increase in the number of those committed to insane hospitals.

The insanity of criminals does not show itself in the majority of cases, as, perhaps, may be popularly supposed, in outbreaks of violence and maniacal excitement. On the con-

trary, it is apt to be negative in character, making its subject stupid, dull, and sullen. Often it is difficult to make a correct diagnosis, even though there may be little doubt of the existence of the disease. The insane criminal is apt to have delusions of persecution and to be full of suspicions, or to have hallucinations of the special senses, and, as a consequence, he is more determined on concealing his ideas than he is in revealing them, and often, being cunning and shrewd, he may be able to entirely deceive even a pretty competent expert.

For all these reasons a large number of prisoners are sent to prison who are already the subjects of mental disease, or may easily become so, and unless they receive careful and thorough medical care they pass through their prison life, often when the disease should be apparent, as sane men. On this point I have received a few lines from Dr. H. E. Allison, superintendent of the New York hospital for insane criminals, who says: "It is a credit to any institution to have officers vigilant enough to detect insanity and to have such cases duly committed to a hospital. Some penal institutions never discover a case of mental disease from year to year. Undoubtedly many dangerous lunatics have been held during terms of imprisonment and liberated finally without their condition being discovered." If this is the case, and it entirely coincides with my own experience and that of other alienists, it can not seem so strange that hardly a week passes away that we do not read of some murder or other crime being committed in a community by a person who is discovered, after the damage is done, to have been insane at the time of its occurrence.

From Elmira there were transferred to the state hospital in 1894

7 inmates; in 1895, 6; 1896, 23; 1897, 8; 1898, 13; 1899, 40.

The presence of an alienist of ten years' experience among the physicians of this reformatory during the past year has probably led to more careful discrimination and more prompt transfer of those who should be classed among the insane. Considering that the total population of the institution is 1,500, the percentage of the insane does not seem to me a large one. I am pretty sure that if I were deputed to examine all of the inmates I should find quite a number that ought to be classified as insane, thereby increasing rather than diminishing the total. In doing this I think I should be performing a real service to the state, for I should be classifying the persons on a more scientific basis than had been the case before, and a greater number would receive the special treatment that their cases demand. Therefore the fact that the medical officers of the reformatory have picked out a larger number of cases of insanity than has been done in previous years, is, in my opinion, to their credit, and to the credit of the institution itself.

A second explanation of the unusually high figures of last year may be found in the fact that the class of prisoners received during the year averaged unusually degenerate, judged by bodily asymmetries and mental make-up. Mr. Brockway says of the men admitted: "It seems natural, and not unreasonable, that five or six hundred felons, gathered out of the masses filling the streets of our metropolis and the densely populous cities of the state, might average differently year by year as to their susceptibility to mental disturbance, under the same condition."

It must be remembered, again, that a large percentage of the felons admitted to the reformatory are at,

or near, the pubescent period of life, which is a factor of great importance, as at that time they are more plastic, mentally and physically, and react more immediately to their environment for better or worse, and, in the case under discussion, we know that it was usually for the worse.

We must also remember the bad habits in many ways of these younger men, in contrast with those of maturer convicts, and give them true weight.

Mr. Brockway is of the opinion "that a considerable percentage of the insanity developed here during the past year, and during another year, when there was an unusual number, is what may be termed voluntary insanity. . . . One case of real insanity transferred from the reformatory suggests to hundreds of others a way out other than by proper preparation of themselves for liberation. They simulate insanity until their weak minds give way and real recognizable mental disturbance appears."

When one looks a little more broadly at the history of the Elmira reformatory, and sees what a splendid work it has accomplished, these criticisms, relative to the significance of the number of cases of insanity occurring in one year, appear very small. Mr. Brockway is practically the father of the new methods of reformatory treatment, and it is at Elmira that these have been put into practice with a degree of intelligence and originality that have made it known from one end of the world to the other, and will be in the future a monument to its founder. What a pity it is that he must be harassed and annoyed in work to which he is giving his life by criticisms that are sure to be unjustified by a careful and intelligent study of the situation!

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Pennsylvania. The last annual report of the Norristown (state) hospital shows that fully seven hundred patients are obliged to sleep in the corridors. Chester county has taken this dilemma by the horns, and erected an asylum of its own, to which all the patients of the county now in state hospitals will be removed. These facts will add interest to the letter of Mr. Sanborn, which follows. This question is like that of public whipping for misdemeanants. Grant the probable benefit under certain conditions, who are made judges of the conditions? From the very nature of the county, or decentralized, system, local officers of a specialized intelligence commensurate with the diffuse character of their duties. In other words, men who, as a rule, possess for their work only such untutored knowledge as their chance supply of common sense may afford. Given local officials with sound sense and more than average intelligence, the whipping post may be beneficial, or the local asylum for the hopelessly insane an institution as humane as the larger aggregations of the state. But let once a sheriff of vindictive temper control the lash, or an overseer such as we too often find in our almshouses, ignorant or shiftless, determine the treatment which shall be given the helpless insane of the county, the resulting possibilities for injustice and inhumanity are, as experience has shown, in Maryland, for instance, as limitless as the helplessness of the victim.

It is noteworthy that the new

Chester institution is to be in charge of a woman, Dr. Jane R. Baker, a graduate of the women's medical college of Philadelphia, who has had considerable experience in caring for the insane. The remarks made above doubtless will not apply in this case. The difficulty with this whole discussion is that those of us who favor the county system point out the ideal institutions of the larger and more prosperous counties, while those of us who favor the state system dwell at length on the possibilities, and actual facts, of the poorer counties, where the insane, under the county system, are herded with the local paupers, under the superintendence of an overseer who has not intelligence enough to keep cows for profit. The section on dependent children of the national conference can give us a suggestion at this point. At the Cincinnati meeting the advocates of the placing-out system and the advocates of the institution system, heretofore in small sympathy with each other, have at last got together and discovered that each of the policies they have been defending is wise under certain conditions. The result is that the "doctors" no longer disagree as formerly, and soon the patient public may be taking homeopathic pills under one set of conditions and institution-pathic pills under others with the assurance of all the experts that it is doing the wise thing. So, too, if our alienists would get together with those "well-meaning philanthropists" who favor the county system, and each allow itself to see the good

in the policy of the other party and the impracticable features of its own scheme, their union on some policy combining the advantages of both methods would be an effective force in determining the practical course which shall be followed by legislation at large. The question is a live one in a dozen states, and it seems unfortunate that the energy of our experts should at this critical time be dissipated in observing one another's work through chromatic lenses.

H. S. B.

**Massachusetts
Insane in
Almshouses.**

Every now and then a sensational article appears in some newspaper of Massachusetts or New York, dilating on the "incredible" or "startling" condition of the poor insane of Massachusetts in the 211 almshouses of that state. Such a paper came out in the Boston *Globe* of September 15, with headings and alarming figures; and I have been asked to explain how far the statements made are trustworthy. It would perhaps be rude to give that answer to the school boy's puzzling problem, which was found to meet all its paradoxical conditions,— "The boy lied." But this rejoinder, expressed in courteous terms, is the true reply to the questions of surprise or malice which such "scare-heads" and senseless statistics engender. Whatever truth there is in the parade of figures and authorities in the *Globe's* article is truth misunderstood and misapplied,—possibly in support of a policy which would increase the real hardships of the insane in Massachusetts,—possibly, in sheer ignorance of the subject treated.

As in all civilized countries, the insane of Massachusetts have been increasing far beyond the gain in the

sane population; and almost always beyond the hospital and asylum provision made for their support. Thus, in October, 1869, (thirty years ago) the number of the visible insane was less than 3,500; ten years later, it was less than 4,200; in October, 1889, it was 5,750; ten years later still (October 1, 1899), it is about 8,300. The population not having quite doubled in thirty years (from 1,400,000 to about 2,700,000, probably), the insane have nearly trebled. Hence there must be place found, in almshouses or private families, for those insane whom the fast-enlarging asylum-wards will not hold without sanitary, mental, and moral risk. To meet this need, some twenty years ago the cities and towns began to make provision in local asylums, under almshouse government, for the pauper insane whom the hospitals discharged for want of space, or for other good reasons. Such are practically incurable, and are not usually benefited by further hospital treatment; moreover, as known from frequent visitation of such patients, they are generally as comfortable, and enjoy the situation as much, in these local asylums as in the larger and costlier hospitals. Of the 800, or possibly 1,000, now said to be in "almshouses" and suffering untold ills, not less than 400 are in such local asylums, fairly well cared for; and at least 200 more are in almshouses where they receive proper care. This leaves a few hundred, out of 8,350, who may or may not have suitable care. Very few cases of actual hardship are reported, but many are sometimes held to be in danger of suffering, because the theoretical conditions of care for the violent and helpless insane are not found in the buildings which they inhabit. But hardly any of them are helpless or violent, and the apparent discomfort of the situation

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of these few is oftentimes, when examined, found to be, relatively to them, one of comfort. I have inspected many scores of hospitals and asylums for the insane, and found in them many thousand (more than 70,000) inmates, and I will guarantee to produce from memory, or my records, a case of worse treatment in establishments having theoretical facilities for hospital care, to match any case of real hardship which any writer will support by evidence as existing within five years in a Massachusetts almshouse.

The general object of those who insist on painting our almshouses so black, in Massachusetts, is to procure the removal of their insane inmates to the constantly overcrowded wards of our public asylums. Could this be done,—it is practically impossible,—it would increase the miseries, diminish the real comfort, and check still more the infrequent recoveries of our eight or ten thousand Massachusetts insane. (The total of the insane, visible and invisible, in Massachusetts can not be far short of 10,000, and more than that number will probably be under observation in the next twelvemonth.) I yield to no man in my desire for the best care of the insane; my record for thirty-five years will sustain the remark; but I shudder at the result of still farther herding together in huge establishments these unfortunate brothers and sisters of mine whom I have been visiting and aiding for half a lifetime. I distrust the sagacity and question the humanity of theorists who advocate the aggregation rather than the diffusion of these morbid elements of our social life. All experience shows that to promote recovery, to utilize the survival of intelligence and will in alienated minds, you must individualize, not throw them into a mixed mass. Family care should be extended, lo-

cal asylums should be encouraged, the evils of almshouse support alleviated; but, simply because evils may exist, it is senseless to argue that they do and must exist. Had the \$2,000,000 which I have seen squandered in Massachusetts in costly asylums, built for ostentation rather than for practical uses—had this sum been placed in wise and frugal hands, like those of the late Dr. Earle, or the present Mr. Blackstone, of Bridgewater, with liberty to locate and build by their best judgment, accommodations would now exist for the comfortable housing of more than our present number of the insane; for that sum would have provided for 4,000 patients in a great variety of places and outward conditions, where now we have less than half that number, not always well housed and usually improperly associated in great hospital palaces or asylum prisons. Other states—New York, for instance—have erred as flagrantly; but Wisconsin now shows a far better way, and other states are imitating that sensible example.

F. B. Sanborn.

STATE BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

Illinois. The fifteenth biennial report of the board of state commissioners of public charities, presented to the governor, October 1, 1898, has been issued in bound form.

This report gives a brief history of the board, which has now completed thirty years of continuous service, and affords an interesting insight of the charitable and correctional work of Illinois during the period it covers. The growth of public charities in Illinois is well illustrated, the report says, by the fact that from December 1, 1868, to November 30, 1870, the total expenses, ordinary and special, of the institutions, subject

to the jurisdiction of the board, not including the universities and the state reform school, was less than \$800,000, while for the two fiscal years ending June 30, 1898, the expenditures on the same account amounted to \$3,480,000. The writer remembers seeing in print a letter from the governor of Illinois to the secretary of New York state in 1824, saying that there were no poor in Illinois and no system of public or private charities.

Indiana. The eighth annual state conference of charities and correction was held at Lafayette, October 3-5. The state bulletin of charities and correction for the nine months ending July 31, 1899, has been received. It contains the full proceedings of the annual conference of the preceding year, held at Indianapolis, November 15-17, 1898, and the statistics of the state institutions for the nine months ending July 31, 1899.

North Carolina The biennial report of the board of public charities for 1897-1898, just received, is a very creditable document and bears evidence to the fact that the public charities of the old North state are, as a rule, in a very forward condition. The county homes, or almshouses, as they are generally called, are in twenty-one counties reported to be in excellent condition; in forty counties as being in good condition; in nine counties as being in fair or indifferent condition; and in nine other counties as being in bad condition. In six counties no county homes are provided.

From this report, it also appears that the board has in the neighborhood of four hundred voluntary visitors, who visit the institutions in their respective districts and report to the board thereon. Some of these reports are very interesting and useful.

Ohio. The *Bulletin* of charities and correction for the quarter ending June 30, 1899, has been received. This number contains several of the reports read at the sessions of the committee on county and municipal charities at the national conference of charities and correction, held at Cincinnati in May, the editor of the *Bulletin* having been chairman of that section; also various other reports and statistics with relation to charitable and correctional work in Ohio. With relation to children's homes in Ohio, the *Bulletin* states: "The board of state charities has approved plans for the proposed children's homes in Erie and Mahoning counties. The homes will cost not to exceed \$20,000 each, and will provide accommodations for fifty children each. The Erie county home will be located at Sandusky, and the Mahoning county home will be conveniently located near Youngstown."

New York. At the October meeting of the state board of charities rules and regulations governing the granting of dispensary relief were adopted, together with a form of license for dispensaries and an application blank for the same, in accordance with the provisions of

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chapter 368 of the laws of 1899. Licenses were granted to eighty-five dispensaries which were either incorporated or connected with other incorporated institutions, and were denied to two dispensaries being carried on in tenement-houses in violation of the statute.

The conditions at the house of refuge for women at Hudson were considered on the report of the committee on reformatories, which recommended the approval by the board of the action taken by the members of the board of managers of the institution and of the measures which they propose to institute as rapidly as circumstances will permit. Having confidence in the ability of the managers to restore order at the institution, no intervention on the part of the board was considered necessary.

The board, upon the favorable report of Commissioner Putnam, approved of the incorporation of "the Clark manor house," proposed to be located at Canandaigua, with the purpose of providing a home for the aged poor of Ontario county. This institution is founded by Mrs. Mary Clark Thompson, of Canandaigua, in memory of her father and mother, the former having been governor of this state.

Upon the recommendation of Commissioner McCarthy, the following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That the state board of charities respectfully requests the state civil service commission to consider the advisability of the passage of such rules and regulations as

will, so far as practicable, bring the keepers of almshouses and their assistants within the classified service.

Resolved, That this board appoint a committee to consider and recommend a dietary for use throughout the almshouses of the state.

The report of the board's special committee on the alleged increase of dependent children in the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, New York city, is noted at length on page 366 of this issue.

The state board has officially called the attention of thirty-two counties to the necessity of correcting defects in their almshouses. The water supply in many of these institutions is very inadequate, and the protection from fire quite insufficient when the infirm condition of the inmates and the character of some of the buildings are considered.

Criticism of
Conference
Methods.

The criticism¹ passed upon the methods of organization and procedure of the national conference of charities and correction, which finds space in the columns of *Our Companion*, the monthly publication of the Cincinnati house of refuge, raises a question by reason of its manifest unfairness, as to whether it is intended to be helpful to a wise correction of plans, or rather to aid the separation from the conference of a branch so ably represented by the superintendent of the Cincinnati house of refuge, and many others who are advocating an independent conference for the juvenile reform schools.

Conceding the need of a better order of procedure for the national conference (which can ill afford to lose any of its members), its friends

¹Noted in the REVIEW for October.

will render the best service by adding to their kindly words of criticism some suggestion or outline of the improvement so much desired. If the intent of the criticism referred to is designed to be corrective, rather than destructive, I am quite certain that any helpful advice to a plan which will advance the interests of all the co-operating institutions in an impartial manner will be thankfully received and carefully considered by the executive committee of the conference for 1900. Concerning the complaint that too little time is given to work and too much to recreation, its force is modified by the fact that much of the so-called recreation is, in fact, a plan of helpful visitation of local institutions in alignment with the work under study, as illustrated by the visits to the Cincinnati house of refuge and other institutions last May. The adage that "in union there is strength" is well exemplified in the patient and painstaking effort to augment the interest in the national conference of charities and correction, and to develop its usefulness as an influence in the shaping of wise remedial legislation, which has already been felt in a marked and helpful degree. The time is rapidly approaching when all the states will be participating members of this conference, and when the necessities of its work of study and comparison of the laws and methods of the several states will demand a central bureau of information at Washington, which will in due time issue a bulletin or compendium of current progress in the several states and territories. Until this is accomplished, let us wisely hold together, conserving the influence so necessary to progress, and patiently await a better time for the separate exploitation of the several interests now co-operating in the conference.

Careful effort will be made to

economize the time of the conference at Topeka in 1900, and to afford fair attention to the interests scheduled upon the program. A meeting of the executive committee will be convened this month, and any suggestions forwarded through the secretary, Mr. H. H. Hart, 115 Monroe street, Chicago, will receive careful consideration.

C. E. Faulkner,

President of the 27th national conference.

Restore the Home?
Bishop Potter, in continuation of his timely defense of the sanctity of the marriage bond, compares in the October *North American Review* the social condition of America with that of France. Already, he feels, with our increasing numbers of independent single women, with our childless families, with those homeless homes of our cities, the hotels, where so many married people now live with scarcely a suggestion of the old-time family circle,—already these things are bringing upon us that social instability accountable for the tragic history of France.

It is just at this point that the social student begins to fear the wisdom of those wonderful caravansaries which seem to have done so much for transient men in New York city, the Mills houses. No philanthropy has been more widely commented upon and approved than these, and none seemingly more justly. It is with a feeling of deep appreciation that the observer goes into one of these hotels; enjoys the palatable meals, the remarkable good cheer of the lounging rooms,—where the evenings are passed by hundreds of men, strangers to one another, in

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the best of good fellowship and, for the most part, innocent entertainment,—the clean bed in a cubicle of complete privacy, the luxury of a shower bath in the morning, and a chance to wash and dry one's clothing if need be. Surely these are things worth bringing to the man who heretofore could afford only the wretched accommodations of the twenty-five cent lodging-houses.

But the atmosphere of such a hotel is directly against the home idea. It is planned for the transient, and if a lodger chooses to become a permanent guest, as many of them do, he must do so on terms which absolutely exclude the thought of home. His cubicle is his, practically, only while he is in it. When he leaves it in the morning his household possessions must go with him. For there is small space in this little bedroom for extra clothing, and none for extra furnishings or trunk. Nor would they be safe if left there. All such things must be left in the store-room of the hotel if left at all. There may be ways of making exceptions to these conditions, and it is possible that the more enterprising individual may succeed in metamorphosing his cubicle into a spot which has some of the home idea in it. But otherwise the whole tendency is toward the barrack plan, where every man lives under marching orders. The accumulation of little properties here, the saving of earnings, the looking forward to a home of one's own is discouraged, on the one hand by the ease with which one may live from day to day,

from meal to meal, without special forethought, on the other by the charm of a club life which finds for every man his boon companion for the hour, and staves off by its good fellowship the loneliness which is the price of homelessness. Considered from this standpoint, such hotels, acting as convenient nuclei for the gathering of those who would shake off the responsibilities of home and property holding, may prove a social menace.

But it must be remembered, on the other hand, that Bishop Potter is defending an ideal—not always realized in fact. The child of the tenement, not less than the child of the hotel, finds too rarely within the three or four rooms it calls home anything worthy of that name. And it may be that contented men in Mills hotels are better than helpless husbands contending with the impossible living conditions of shiftless or loveless wives, and that independent spinsters are better than neglected mothers bearing children into a life which can promise nothing but misery and degradation. The reformer will promptly say these homes can be brought up to the ideal. But while we train the home-makers, independent spinsters, Mills houses, childless families, families in hotels, families disrupted, all are increasing. It has always been so; while the conservative forces of the community are calling it back to the old ideals, society itself is progressing steadily toward some new form of life—it may be better, it may be worse—but none

the less imminent. It will not do for us to shut our eyes to new factors in the problem, to fail to realize that the old Hebraic idea of home is in some measure impossible under modern city conditions, to ignore social facts which prove that the former ideal must be in some way unsatisfactory. The Mills houses, for instance, apparently militating directly against the home ideal, will doubtless soon be copied in several large cities, and such facts can no more be ignored by the conservative who calls for the reproduction of the home than can the actual occupation of the Philippines by our forces be ignored by those of us to whom the idea of imperialism is abhorrent. When the social tendency of the times is clearly against one's ideals, it does not seem wise for the social student to spend his strength trying to turn the movement back to the old ways, but rather to study the new conditions, in order to direct, as much as may be, the new tendency in such a way that it will bring the least harm, and bear the most good. A little studied effort, a few well conducted evening classes or lectures, and a slight change of policy in management, would soon remove from the Mills houses, or similar institutions, their most undesirable social features, while conserving the undoubted benefits which they confer on the lodger. So, too, is it not possible that the present anti-home tendency in this country is an unconscious protest against the alternative conditions of a home life which has been found, or would have proved,

unlivable? The natural suggestion here is, not a call back to the old ways—which would not have been abandoned if they had not proved unsatisfactory under the given conditions, but an earnest study of these new conditions and an effort to get good out of the tendency which they have brought about.

Association of Hospital Superintendents. At a recent meeting in Cleveland of a dozen hospital superintendents from Ohio and neighboring states, a national organization was formed for interchange of ideas in hospital management. The annual meeting for 1900 will be held at Pittsburgh, in August. It is expected by the founders of the association that it will grow to embrace the superintendents of the important hospitals of the country.

Lunch Clubs for Working Girls. Denver women are interested in the formation of a lunch club for the benefit of working girls.

Denver women are interested in the formation of a lunch club for the benefit of working girls. The plan has been tried, it is said, in Los Angeles, San Francisco, Seattle, New York, and Chicago, though in a small way, and from these experiences it is thought by those interested that a wholesome and palatable lunch can be served for ten cents, with small but steady net profits. These profits, in the proposed organization, would be used for furnishing a noon rest room with easy chairs, magazines, etc., where room might be made also for girls bringing their own lunches and able to pay only a

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South Carolina Dispensary Frauds. South Carolina is having trouble with its official liquor dispensaries. Proof of extensive fraud on the part of high officials has been found, and the state commissioner or superintendent has been removed from office. It seems, according to the investigation, that the citizens of the state have been caused by this enterprising official and some of his colleagues to drink unwittingly a very poor whiskey, on which the commissioner had superimposed the labels and prices of a much better grade of liquor. They are to be commiserated.

Training School for Backward Children. The Chicago physiological school has been incorporated by President Harper, of the university of Chicago, Miss Mary R. Campbell, and others. It is to be an experimental school in training children of stunted development. The children, at present limited to fifteen in number, will be boarded in the school and kept under close surveillance. It is hoped by keeping records of such study to reach some logical conclusions to determine what environment will do for the children who fail to develop normally.

The Theory of Charity.

The nature of charity, writes Mr. J. W. Powell in the *American Anthropologist*, is learned in primeval society. Perhaps it has a still more lowly origin. It is fundamental in all animal life where the parent provides for the offspring. On the bisexual organization of animals it receives an additional impulse in the co-operation of male and female and in the sympathy and assistance which they render each other. The third principle of charity is illustrated when children render assistance to parents in their old age. In tribal society these three principles are well recognized and enforced.

It remained for civilization to add two principles to the concept of charity. The first is individually acted upon by tribal men, but seems not to be enforced by legal tribunal. It is the assistance which men render to one another in misfortune. In early civilization this took concrete form by the establishment of charitable agencies, by the institution of laws for their maintenance and support, either by social bodies corporate or by governmental bodies corporate. In that stage of society in which church and state are still under one head, while the fusion resulted in the temporary overflow of liberty, it performed a royal deed for mankind by enlarging the concepts of charity.

The fifth principle of charity is the recognition that justice does not require punishment, but only remedy for the past and prevention for the future, and that man may not mete out vengeance. This is its crowning element.

THE NATIONAL PRISON ASSOCIATION CONGRESS.

BY CHARLES P. KELLOGG.

The annual congress of the national prison association met this year in Hartford, October 23-27. It was the twentieth session of the organization, for, although formed in 1871, it happened that the annual meeting was omitted in some of the earlier years. Some two hundred delegates were present, representing twenty-two states, besides the dominion of Canada.

At the opening meeting on Saturday evening addresses of welcome were made by Mr. E. C. Frisbie, chairman of the local committee, by Governor Lounsbury, Mayor Preston, Reverend Samuel Hart, president of the episcopal theological seminary, Reverend Father Shanley of the Roman catholic cathedral, and Rabbi Elkin of the Hebrew synagogue. Governor Lounsbury, while evidencing his appreciation of the work of the association, nevertheless reminded his hearers that the general body of citizens, who bear the great burden of taxation and who have neither the taste nor the time for the investigation of scientific penology, do not take kindly to any proposed prison reforms that involve at the outset a largely increased expense. Probably it was not known at the time by many of the delegates that Governor Lounsbury spoke in the light of recent experience in the Connecticut legislature, where the

committee of which he was chairman recommended a cessation of the reformatory project, which was then being developed along lines of magnitude far in excess of the original purpose. It is possible that some of the delegates inferred from Governor Lounsbury's speech a doubt or reluctance as to reformatory work beyond that he intended to convey. Dr. Frederick H. Wines, assistant superintendent of the United States census, made the response to the address of welcome, in which he said:

The vitality of prison reform is explained by the fact that it is a part of the great movement for intellectual, spiritual, and moral progress that has been sweeping through the world. The national prison association is a product and an exponent of this movement. The prisoner has a right to be treated in prison with reference to his reformation. He is a product—a reactionary product—of society. The spirit of the national prison association recognizes the universal brotherhood of man, and their work is in the line of human progress.

Great regret was felt that the president, Major R. W. McLaughry, of Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, was unable to be present at the congress, and in his absence the first vice-president of the association, Captain E. S. Wright, warden of the western state penitentiary at Allegheny, Pennsylvania, made a brief address,

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The annual sermon to the congress was preached on Sunday morning in the historic center church, by Reverend Chester D. Hartranft. Dr. Hartranft has made for years a broad and exhaustive study of sociological problems and his sermon was a clear exposition of the great principles and relations that unify the criminal with society, and both with the divine nature. In the course of the address he made earnest pleas for the development of a genuine religious or ethical spirit in the treatment of criminals, for the employment as officials of none but men of the highest character and ability, for complete freedom from political influence, and for the general adoption of the principle of the indeterminate sentence.

In the evening a popular meeting, largely attended, was held at the first baptist church. Judge Edgar M. Warner, of Putnam, Connecticut, spoke upon the subject, "the sober man's burden,—the drunkard." He made a severe arraignment of our present illogical system of maintaining county jails, a system which succeeds chiefly in perpetuating the "rounder" or habitual criminal. He demonstrated the economic folly of continuing this drain upon the public purse and argued strongly in favor of the application of reformatory features to such jails. Mr. Charles Dudley Warner followed with a brief address, in the course of which he said: The note of prison reform is discipline. The want of it is the chief reason for the failure of nearly all the so-called reformatories,

including the juvenile. The second reason of failure is that the discipline is not continued long enough. The long continuance of disciplinary treatment in most cases is essential to any change of life. The effort is to make a sound man, one who has, when he gets through the course, command of himself, is so disciplined and has formed such habits that he is capable of obeying the laws of his country and becoming a decent and productive citizen.

Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Concord, Massachusetts, delivered an interesting address upon "the requirements of prison science," in which he sketched briefly the historical development of prison discipline, dwelling especially upon the work in this country of Mr. Brockway and of Mrs. Ellen C. Johnson. In conclusion, he stated the main requirements of prison science to be: First, to understand the individual convict and place him in one of several grades, into the highest of which he can rise by effort, even as he can fall to the lowest by indolence or vice. Second, to see that his marking for good or bad conduct, good or poor lessons at school, or progress up or down in manual training and mechanical industry, is done on such a scale and by persons so experienced that the convict himself must recognize the justice of the award. Third, instruction at school, but more especially in some trade or honest employment, which will serve as a breadwinner when the prison ceases to be his home. Fourth, (but preliminary to all), the indeterminate sentence, allowing time for the punishment of the old régime to become the education and rectification of the new science. Finally, a recognition at every step of imprisonment that the future of the prisoner is in his own

hands. Into this moral science must enter, as into all physical science, the inscrutable element of vitality.

Meetings in other churches and at the county jail were addressed during the day by delegates from the congress, so that the prison question was presented before a large number of people.

The business sessions of the congress during the week days were held in Keney hall in the good will club building, the whole of which was tendered by its directors for the use of the association. The evening sessions were held in the larger auditorium of the fourth congregational church.

One of the most important subjects before the congress and one that aroused vigorous discussion was that of the employment of convict labor, which was considered in a paper by Warden Henry Wolfer, of Minnesota, at the meeting of the wardens' association on Monday morning. Mr. Wolfer disparaged the objections made by labor unions to the employment of prisoners at productive labor by showing that in 1890 the total value of labor expended by convicts in the penitentiaries and prisons was only a little more than one-tenth of one per cent of the total wages paid in the manufacturing industries in the country. The employment of convicts upon public roads and works was condemned as subversive of the best interests of society and of the convict from the standpoint of public morals and of economic results. Prison labor must be productive in order to avoid waste and to give the training necessary for regular habits of industry. The system of employment upon state

account was advocated. In this the state should select the industries with three objects in view; first, to distribute the competition as equally as possible; second, to provide such mechanical employment as will best fit the convicts to earn an honest living when discharged; and third, to make the institution as nearly self-supporting as possible. Sound administration, free from all political influence, was recognized as the decisive factor in the successful management of prison industries.

The address Tuesday evening of Commissioner Carroll D. Wright, of the United States department of labor, treated the same subject. The best solution of the problem thus far he finds in the state-prison system, particularly that system as now in operation in the state of New York. Mr. Wright considers first, that it is wisest to conduct industries in such a way as to leave the least impression on prices and the rates of wages; second, that for incorrigibles and recidivists that form of labor should be adopted which requires the largest expenditure of muscle in proportion to the cost of raw materials, and the least outlay of capital; third, that there is not so much reformable material in prisons as philanthropists and others would have us believe; fourth, that very many men now sent to prison by the courts should be sent to the insane asylum; fifth, that it is the interest of labor and capital to reduce the number of prisoners rather than constantly to attack the systems of prison labor; sixth, that in the conduct of prisons and the employment of prisoners the physician's point of view should be followed, that is, in state prisons the cure of the moral maladies, just as in other institutions the cure of mental and physical maladies, should

be the basis of the system that in the end will have the effect upon the prisoners and the community that it is now desired to have now or in the future. The system—unfortunately, and the question is, does it involve the principle of reformation, or is it a constant aim of the convicts that they should always be bad, and, especially in such a way, that they shall not be reformed.

The annual meeting of the Superintendents of the State of California, was an assembly of the qualities of an ideal Warden. He strongly impressed us with his knowledge and his spirit by the way in which he may have influenced us.

be the basis of management; seventh, that in the employment of convicts the effect upon the treasury should be incidental to the best effect upon the prisoners themselves and upon the community at large; eighth, that it is wise to let alone the system now on trial in the states that have provided for it—the state-use system—until it can be fully tried and the question determined whether it involves the very best elements of reformation, remuneration, and the constant and healthy employment of the convict; ninth, that the state should always conduct its prison, and, especially, employ its prisoners, in such a way that the individual shall not be degraded.

The discussion of this subject brought out the fact that in several states there is an organized opposition to prison labor, largely political, and that this must be met by the cultivation of a right public sentiment. Some states are looking with interest to the state-use system in New York as perhaps the best solution of the problem. Where prison labor is distributed among a number of industries, it is believed that there is less objection to its competition with free labor.

The annual address of the president of the wardens' association, Superintendent A. T. Hert, of Indiana, was an interesting exposition of the qualities desired in the make-up of an ideal warden. A paper by Warden Hoyt, of Colorado, in which he strongly advocated corporal punishment in the treatment of prisoners, was received in a less serious spirit by the delegates than its writer may have intended.

The meeting of the chaplains' as-

sociation on Monday afternoon was addressed by Reverend W. J. Batt, of Concord, Massachusetts, and Reverend C. L. Wingat, of Columbus, Ohio. A large part of the session was devoted to a service in memory of the late Mrs. Ellen C. Johnson, of the Sherborn reformatory. Tributes to her remarkable character and beautiful personality were made by many present.

The principle of the indeterminate sentence received much attention during the congress and was given a remarkably clear and comprehensive treatment in the address of Mr. Charlton T. Lewis, of New York. All of the objections usually made to its adoption were presented in their full strength, but all seemed of little account when viewed in the light of reason and experience. A few brief quotations may show in part the nature of the address.

The result of the whole discussion as it has been carried on for many years in this association is that prisons have no use in the social economy, except for the single purpose of confining men unfit for freedom; that convicts can never be rightfully imprisoned except upon proof that it is unsafe for themselves and for society to leave them free, and when confined can never be rightfully released until they show themselves fit for membership in a free community.

This clamor against ideas, principles, and demonstrable truths, in the name of practical intelligence, is the perpetual brake upon the wheels of progress; and requires me to add, once for all, that there is no longer anything merely speculative or experimental in any of the

methods we advocate, but every one of them has already vindicated its value, to the utmost extent of sanguine hope, wherever it has been even tentatively and timidly applied.

Every one of us sees that the reformatory sentence is the only hopeful treatment of the felon; but there is something nobler and more useful than the most perfect measures for the reformation of ten felons; it is the measure which shall prevent one man from becoming a felon. Partial and incipient expressions of this principle are the custom of suspending sentence, now authorized by many states, the probation law of Massachusetts, and above all the deep stirrings of mind and conscience among students of criminal science everywhere, all looking to the limitation of the practice of imprisonment within bounds far narrower than any of us have as yet dared to define.

The reports of the standing committees on criminal law reform, on the work of prison physicians, and on police force in cities were put over until the next meeting of the association. The report of the committee on discharged prisoners was embraced in two addresses by Mr. John J. Lytle, of Philadelphia, and Mr. Warren F. Spalding, of Boston, in which the belief was expressed that in the future prison congresses will be more deeply concerned in the consideration of preventive measures.

For the committee on preventive and reformatory work an interesting paper was presented by Professor R. Charles Bates, of Elmira, who stated that comparatively little has been done which actually prevents crime. It is a familiar fact that fifty-eight per cent of all the prisoners received

for one year at a well known reformatory had previously been in reform schools, houses of correction, or other reformatories. Among the more important advances in social conditions the committee counts improved tenements, free public baths, playgrounds, kindergartens, manual training schools, newsboys' lodging-houses, and in some cases curfew ordinances. A real indeterminate sentence would act as a deterrent from crime, and would effect a more complete change in purposes and habits when undergoing the process of reformation. The attending maximum which the statute provides for the present system robs it to a degree of its real value as an incentive towards reformation.

Prison discipline was treated by Warden N. F. Boucher, of North Dakota, in his report for the standing committee on that subject. In the discussion which followed these two reports, Professor Henderson, of Chicago university, spoke of a commission that had been appointed in Chicago to study the aptitudes and capacities of the children of the city as a basis of their studies in the schools, and of the importance of making a study of criminals along the same lines. A resolution was therefore adopted that a special committee be appointed to prepare a report for next year on the advisability of introducing the systematic study of convicts in reformatories and prisons by trained psychologists under the direction of the superintendents and wardens.

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tion was indorsed by the congress, and a committee was appointed to use every possible effort to establish a central bureau for gathering annual statistics.

A fitting climax to the meetings was reached on Wednesday evening in the address of President W. F. Slocum, of Colorado college, who epitomized the best thought of the congress in his consideration of the prison as a great charity, using that much abused word in its fullest sense, which recognizes always the possibility of transforming the pauper and the criminal into human beings who may become valuable to society. This conception of prison management involves complete freedom from political influence, makes much of intelligent industrial labor as a regenerative force, and would give the prisoner opportunity to share in the proceeds of his work, thus developing his self-respect and permitting him to help bear the burden of those who are rightfully dependent upon him. The indeterminate sentence is recognized as the necessary foundation of all real reformatory work.

The congress, as a whole, was remarkable for the high ideals, the broad optimism, and the earnest practicality which marked its deliberations, and there is no doubt that it left a deep impression upon the community. Much was done by the people of Hartford to entertain the delegates, and many interesting visits to institutions were enjoyed, notably to the Connecticut industrial school for girls at Middletown, a model of its kind. The reports of the proceedings in the local newspapers were remarkably accurate and complete—a feature in itself most encouraging to reformers.

The time and place for the next congress were fixed for September, 1900, in Cleveland, and Captain E. S. Wright, of Allegheny, was elected as its president. Major McLaughry, Professor Henderson, Reverend J. L. Milligan, of Pennsylvania, General Brinkerhoff, of Ohio, and the president-elect were chosen as delegates to represent the association at the international prison congress to be held at Brussels next July.

NEW YORK'S NEW BUILDING CODE,

AS AFFECTING TENEMENT-HOUSE REFORM.

BY LAWRENCE VEILLER.

Reference was made in the August issue of the REVIEW to the recommendations of the tenement-house committee of the New York charity organization society for new tenement-house ordinances. The proposed ordinances required in all new tenement-houses air shafts not less than six feet in width and not less than 150 square feet in superficial area, so as to provide proper light and air. Other recommendations required bathing facilities in all new tenement-houses; limited the height of new tenements to six stories; provided that 600 cubic feet of air space should be the minimum in living rooms; provided that the first floor of all new tenement-houses four stories or more in height should be fireproof; that the walls of new tenement-houses should be carried up three feet, six inches above the roof, so as to make safe roof-playgrounds; prohibited the erection of wooden buildings on the same lot with a tenement-house; forbade the location of the cellar stairs directly underneath the stairs leading to the upper floors; required that in the dark halls of existing tenements the wooden panels of doors should be taken out and replaced with ground glass panels.

These recommendations were adopted by the committee after careful study of the defects of the present law, and after conference and full discussion with settlement workers and other persons who from long experience were in a position to appreciate the evils of our present tenement-house system. They were then submitted to the municipal building code commission in a small pamphlet of some eighteen pages, setting forth the reasons for the adoption of such ordinances. They were also submitted to and endorsed by the New York chapter of the American institute of architects and the architectural league.

On September 6 the building code commission submitted to the municipal assembly the new building code. In the accompanying report the commission made the following statement:

A committee representing the tenement-house committee of the charity organization society, including Mr. Lawrence Veiller, secretary, and Dr. E. R. L. Gould, Mr. I. N. Phelps Stokes, and Mr. Edward T. Devine, appeared before the commission on June 29 last, requesting that certain changes be incorporated in the new building code concerning tenement-house construction. The commission carefully considered the

suggestions which had been printed by the tenement-house committee, and were gratified to find that most of the suggested amendments were already embodied in the tentative code—in fact, that in some instances the commission had gone even further than the committee in their desire to improve tenement-houses and render them safe and sanitary.

In view of this official statement it was rather a surprise to find upon examination of the new code that not one of the recommendations of the tenement-house committee had been incorporated, but that, on the contrary, some wise provisions of the old law had been set aside by new provisions that were unwarranted, and a distinct step backward. Among these latter are those permitting tenement-houses to be erected to a height of eighty-five feet (or eight stories), provided the first two floors of such buildings are constructed fireproof. The old law had limited this height to six stories, and it was felt by tenement-house reformers that even it was too great a height for such buildings, and that they should properly be limited to five stories in height. The reasons for this were not only the greater danger in case of fire, but also that the increasingly tall buildings in tenement neighborhoods shut out the light and air to so great an extent that there is almost none available for the occupants. Again, aside from the question of compelling women and little children to climb eight flights of stairs to reach their rooms, it was felt that the best way of remedying the over-crowding which exists in

New York is, in the first place, to limit the height of such buildings, and, at the same time, to limit the number of families that can be accommodated on one floor.

The most serious defect of the new code in its bearing on tenement-houses is to be found in an entirely new section, in which an "apartment-house" is defined as follows:

An apartment-house shall be taken to mean and include every building which shall be intended or designed for, or used as the home or residence of, three or more families, or households, living independently of each other, and in which every such family or household shall have provided for it a kitchen, set bath-tub, and water-closet, separate and apart from any other. Any such building hereafter erected shall not cover any greater percentage of a lot than is lawful to be covered by a tenement-house, and the requirements for light and ventilation for a tenement-house shall also apply to an apartment-house.

At first sight this definition seems harmless and to be of little effect, but careful examination of it will disclose quite the contrary. To appreciate this it is necessary to bear in mind that an apartment-house has been defined by the different statutes of the state, passed at various times since 1867, as—

any house or building or portion thereof which is rented, leased, let, or hired out to be occupied, or is occupied, as the home or residence of three families or more, living independently of each other, and doing their own cooking on the premises, or by more than two families upon a floor, so living and cooking and having a common right in the halls,

stairways, yards, water-closet, or any of them.

This is also the definition of a tenement-house as given in the Greater New York charter. It is perfectly apparent that no matter how "apartment-houses" may be defined in the code, every apartment-house will in the eyes of the law still be a tenement-house and must comply therefore with all the requirements relating to tenement-houses. What possible object therefore is there in having this definition in the new code, unless it is to secure different treatment for apartment-houses from that secured for tenement-houses? The definition is not merely in the code for purpose of definition, but to secure some definite results. It is to be remembered that the code is supposed to relate to all matters concerning the construction, alteration, or removal of buildings, and the great mass of the general public, especially builders, will feel that what is printed in the code is final, and naturally will not turn to the charter or to any other statute to find other authority for their actions, so that they will feel that there is a difference between a tenement-house and an apartment-house, especially if there is to be any advantage to be gained by calling a building an "apartment-house." The result of this will be that the tenement-house and the apartment-house will be considered on a different basis in the department of buildings. The most serious part of this whole provision is to be found in the phrase which states that "any apartment-house hereafter erected shall

not cover any greater percentage of a lot than is lawful to be covered by a tenement-house, and the requirements for light and ventilation shall also apply to an apartment-house." No mention is made whatsoever of a building that may hereafter be altered to be used as an apartment-house, or converted to the use of an apartment-house, having to comply with the tenement-house laws. Therefore under this code the owner of any existing tenement-house in this city could by providing a set bath-tub and a set water-closet for each suite of rooms change his tenement-house into an apartment-house; then he could proceed to alter the building which is now an apartment-house by adding an extension so that the building would cover the entire lot, he could provide any number of dark rooms that he wished to, and could in fact evade all the provisions of the tenement-house law. It is safe to predict that if this section of the code is adopted, the 40,000 tenement-houses in this city will in a short time be changed into apartment-houses in this manner. This attempt to distinguish between an apartment-house and a tenement-house simply offers a means of evading the tenement-house law by providing a system of classification in the building department by which all buildings may be classed there as apartment-houses instead of tenement-houses. As a matter of fact there is no reason whatsoever why there should be any distinction between an apartment-house and a tenement-house. There is no pro-

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In addition there to all kinds relating to houses. Admitting the the simply an should of in buildings provision parts of the wooden tenement buildings occupied by s forbad the buildings by lies, as the buildings of

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vision of the existing tenement-house laws that apartment-houses should not comply with.

In addition to these serious defects there are others relating to all kinds of buildings, and many relating specifically to tenement-houses. Among them is one permitting the construction of a three-story wooden dumb-waiter shaft in a tenement-house. Such a shaft is simply an inflammable flue and should of course not be permitted in buildings of this kind. Another provision permits in the outlying parts of the city the erection of wooden tenement-houses to be occupied by six families. The old law forbade the occupancy of such buildings by more than three families, as the risk to life from fire in buildings of this class is extreme.

Notwithstanding strong opposi-

tion on the part of persons and societies interested in better tenement conditions and the almost unanimous criticism of the entire local press, the code has been adopted, and goes into effect December 22.

The agitation of the committee of the charity organization society for better tenement-house laws, although thus without definite results in actual enactment, has been of great educational value, having aroused the interest of the community in the subject. There is a much better understanding at present of the defects and evils of New York's tenement-house system than heretofore. It is to be hoped that in the near future a new tenement-house law will be enacted, adequately meeting the evils which the new code promises merely to aggravate.

AMERICAN PHILANTHROPY OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY:¹

THE CARE OF DESTITUTE, NEGLECTED, AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN:²

BY HOMER FOLKS,

Secretary of the New York State Charities Aid Association.

In arranging the papers of this series it has seemed best to limit the present one to the consideration of the care of children who have been removed from their earlier environment and from parental control, and the direction of whose lives and burden of whose support has been assumed by public authorities or private charity. Many activities often included under the term "child-saving" will, therefore, not be treated here. Nothing will be said, for instance, of movements that are primarily educational, such as day schools, kindergartens, and home libraries. Various agencies which help poor families to keep their children under their own care, such as day nurseries, will be considered in the paper on "the care and relief of needy families." Children's hospitals will be considered in the paper on "hospitals,

dispensaries, and nursing," institutions for the training of mentally defective children, in that on "the insane, feeble-minded, and epileptic;" while the paper on "preventive work" will touch child life at many points not classified above.

I—THE SITUATION IN 1801.

The opening of the nineteenth century found the English poor-law system well established in most of the sixteen states then comprising the Union. The poor, children and adults, were cared for by the local administrative units, towns (i. e., townships) or counties and cities. There was little or no oversight or control by the states, and, then as now, none by the federal authorities. Little distinction was made as between adults and children, both being cared for in one of five ways:

¹ See editorial, page 353.

² Synopsis of paper:

- i. The situation in 1801.
- ii. Public care of destitute children. 1801-1875.
- iii. Private charities for destitute children. 1801-1875.
- iv. Removal of children from almshouses.
- v. Public systems, other than almshouse care. 1875-1900.
- vi. Neglected children.
- vii. Private charities for destitute and neglected children. 1875-1900.
- viii. Delinquent children.
- ix. Present tendencies.

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1. By outdoor relief, given to families at their own homes.
2. By farming out to various families, usually to the lowest bidder.
3. By contracting with some individual, usually the lowest bidder, to care for all the poor of a given locality.
4. By supporting them in an almshouse directly under the control of public authorities.
5. By indenture.

The farming-out and contract systems had comparatively little application so far as children were concerned. The indenture system, although especially applicable to children, was, it is curious to note, also used as a means of caring for adults. The statutes of several states provided at the opening of the century that idle or vagrant persons might be indentured to respectable citizens for a period of one year.

Outdoor Relief. In tracing the early history of the public care of pauper children it will be necessary to follow for some time the systems of outdoor relief and almshouse care. Outdoor relief was undoubtedly the method by which the larger number of pauper children, as well as adults, were cared for at the opening of the century. It had already passed (in 1784 in New York) from the control of the church authorities to that of the overseers of the poor, who were strictly public officials. The reports upon public relief made at a little later date, by competent authorities in Boston and New York, indicate that outdoor relief exerted the same evil influ-

ences upon children at the opening of the century as at its close in those localities in which it still prevails.

Almshouses were first **Institutional Care.**

Philadelphia, the largest city in the United States at the opening of the century (pop., 70,287), was then occupying its second public almshouse, opened in 1767 and located on the area bounded by Tenth and Eleventh and Spruce and Pine streets. Both adults and children were cared for in this institution.

New York, the second city in the Union (pop., 60,489), had just abandoned (in 1796) its original almshouse, and had removed its paupers to a much larger building located in the present City Hall park, and on the site of the present county courthouse. Here were numbers of children, together with the many other elements of almshouse population that in large cities have since been segregated into special classes. The almshouse, while under the immediate management of a superintendent, was largely controlled by the common council, which held its meetings at the almshouse once in three months and inspected the institution. On October 6, 1800, a committee of the common council, appointed to frame a new set of rules for the management of the almshouse, reported as among the objects to be attained the following:

The children of the house should be under the government of capable matrons. . . . They should be

uniformed, housed, and lodged in separate departments, according to their different sexes; they should be kept as much as possible from the other paupers, habituated to decency, cleanliness, and order, and carefully instructed in reading, writing, and arithmetic. The girls should also be taught to sew and knit.

When the children arrive at proper ages, great care should be taken to furnish them with suitable places, that they may be instructed in some useful trade or occupation.¹

The exact number of children in the New York city almshouse in 1801 is not available, but on August 14, 1809, they numbered 226—125 boys and 101 girls. It is likely that the city also boarded a number of infants in families at this time. The rules established by the common council in 1800 provided that "care shall be taken to provide healthy and proper nurses for such of the children as may require them; and where this can be done out of the house, it shall be preferred."¹ Some what later, on April 1, 1823, we learn that there were 129 infants placed out "at nurse," and paid for by the city at the rate of \$1 per week.

Baltimore, the third city in the Union (pop., 26,614), probably cared for its destitute children in the Baltimore county almshouse, the city having no charitable institution under its immediate direction at that time.

Boston, the fourth city (pop., 24,027), erected its second almshouse, for both children and adults, in 1800. Outdoor relief was also given freely, as was the case quite

generally throughout New England. The proportion of "unsettled," or state, paupers was increasing, but they were cared for by the cities and towns, which were reimbursed by the state.

There were no other cities in the United States having a population above ten thousand. In most of Pennsylvania, and generally in the southern states, the county system of poor relief prevailed, and many counties erected almshouses. In Maryland, the county almshouse system was established by law in 1768. In Delaware, each county had an almshouse by 1823.

So far as known, the only public institution for children, not forming part of an almshouse, existing in 1801, was the Charleston, S. C., orphan house. The charter of Charleston, granted at the close of the revolutionary war, imposed upon the city the duty of providing for poor orphans. For some years the children were boarded in families, but in 1790 a resolution was adopted by the city council in favor of the establishment of an orphan house. At first a building was hired for this purpose, but a new structure erected by the city was opened October 18, 1794, to receive the 115 orphans who were city charges. The records of the institution tell of an appreciative visit to the institution by President Washington.

The plan of indenturing or apprenticing destitute children, also taken from the English poor law, was in very general use

¹ Minutes of the common council, 1800. Manuscripts in city library at city hall.

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¹ Ibid.

at the opening of the century. It had been carefully regulated by law in Massachusetts in 1703, in New York in 1754, in Pennsylvania in 1771, and in Maryland in 1797, and doubtless found legal recognition in still earlier statutes in these and other states. The rules established by the common council for the government of the New York almshouse in 1800 provided that "When any of the children arrive at proper ages they shall be bound out to suitable trades or occupations, and provision shall be made in their indenture for their due maintenance and instruction. If any of those who shall have been so bound out, shall be injured or ill treated, the superintendent shall consider it as his duty to procure them redress. They are to be considered in every respect as the children of the public, under his care."¹ In Virginia, overseers of the poor were required by law to make monthly reports, to the county courts, of the poor orphans and other children bound out.

Private Charities. The previous century had seen the beginnings of a remarkable development of private charities for the care of children. The first orphan asylum in the country was probably that attached to the Ursuline convent in New Orleans. This convent was established in 1727, under the auspices of Louis XV of France, and, on the authority of the archbishop of New Orleans, an orphan asylum was attached to it from the beginning. The Bethesda orphan house was

established in Savannah in 1738, only five years after the colony was settled, by the celebrated preacher, George Whitefield, to whom, he states, the plan was suggested by Reverend Charles Wesley and Governor Oglethorpe. This was founded by funds collected by Whitefield in England. In 1797, the society for the relief of poor widows with small children was organized in New York city. This society did not establish an institution, but visited and gave relief to the widows and children in their homes. In 1798, an association was organized by a Roman catholic priest in Philadelphia to care for the orphans of catholics who died of yellow fever during that year. Subsequently this institution became St. Joseph's female orphan asylum. In 1799, an asylum for the care and education of destitute girls was established by St. Paul's church in Baltimore, and in 1800 the Boston female asylum for indigent orphan girls was incorporated. It is likely that an orphan asylum was established by a Roman catholic sisterhood in New Orleans, prior to 1801, but exact information is not attainable.

As to destitute children, *Summary.* the situation at the opening of the century may, therefore, be summed up in the statement that children who were public charges were, as a rule, cared for with adult paupers by the contract system, or in almshouses, or by outdoor relief, or were bound out as apprentices; that Charleston had a municipal or-

¹ *Ibid.*

phan asylum; and that private institutions for children had been established in Savannah, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Boston.

As to neglected children, we fail to find in the statutes of the time any provision for their rescue and care, except that the laws of Maryland authorized the binding out of the children of beggars. The class of children who are now forcibly removed from the control of unfit parents apparently remained with their families until the latter became destitute, when the children were cared for as pauper children, or until the fruits of neglect were reaped, and the children, convicted of offences, were sent to jails and penitentiaries along with older offenders. In the penitentiary of New York city, on April 1, 1823, we are informed there were thirty-two boys.

II—PUBLIC CARE OF CHILDREN, 1801-1875.

Agencies for the care of destitute children have sprung from two sources,—from public bodies acting in behalf of the whole community, and from private benevolence exercised through individual or associated effort. The term public, as used throughout this paper in connection with institutions or agencies for the care of children, indicates such as are under the direct control of governmental bodies and are supported from public funds. The term private indicates all other agencies, whether managed by individuals or by societies, churches or corporations.

The public care of children during

the first three-quarters of the century follows, in the main, the changes in the care of adult paupers, though in the larger cities provision was made for them separate from the adults, but under the same administrative control. The movement as a whole was toward an increased use of almshouses and a relative diminution of outdoor relief. The farming-out and contract systems passed largely into disuse, and in some states were forbidden by law.

As it is undoubtedly fairly indicative of the manner in which most municipal institutions for children have been conducted, the history of the care of children by the city of New York will be considered at some length. That of other important municipalities will follow more briefly.

The common council of Public Care
In New York. this city, whose minutes during the first three-quarters of the century afford many illustrations of aldermanic wisdom as applied to child-saving, appointed January 7, 1805, a committee to consider and report upon the expediency of granting the application of the commissioners of the almshouse for the establishment at the almshouse of a school for the pauper children. Whether the school was established or not we do not know. In 1816 the children were removed, along with the almshouse paupers, the hospital, and the prison department, to the new Bellevue establishment at Twenty-sixth street and East river,—the main building of which is still used as Bellevue hospital. On April 1, 1823, there were 553 children in the Bellevue almshouse, and the number of children in families aided by public outdoor relief was esti-

mated at 2,000. The school was established in 1826 described as "a school or free school upon the model of the existing schools, containing 3000 rooms for pupils. The school is well provided with teachers and is conducted by the public school system of the city. The children are decently clothed and healthy,"¹—altogether a creditable arrangement. There are two bridewells, one at the end of the street, containing six cells, formerly occupied by men and women who have been confined in the hospital, and the other used for children. The almshouse is a large building that the number of paupers had increased five years from its opening.

A severe epidemic in 1831 produced the end of the almshouse for children, and the board of aldermen appointed a committee to consider the establishment of a new almshouse for the paupers, meeting thereon at the almshouse for the treatment of ophthalmia, and later the committee to assist the paupers in the treatment of the disease was to receive the same. He visited the almshouse.

Just at this time Blackwell's Island farms in the East river

¹The picture.

²Proceeding.

mated at 4,000. Here, at least, a school was provided, for a writer in 1826 describing the almshouse establishment says, "One of the public or free schools (No. 6), conducted upon the monitorial system and containing 300 scholars, is in appropriate rooms for males and females. The school is well conducted, and the teachers are under the direction of the public school committee of the city. The children are orderly, clean, decently clothed, and in good health,"¹—an optimistic report, not altogether sustained by later developments. The writer continues, "There are two brick buildings, one at each end of the factory, 75x25 feet, containing six rooms each, which were formerly occupied as hospitals, one for men and one for women who have been removed to the new hospital, and these rooms are now used for children and their nurses." The almshouse census in 1828 showed that the number of juvenile inmates had increased during the preceding five years from 553 to 667.

A severe outbreak of ophthalmia in 1831 proved to be the beginning of the end of the use of the Bellevue establishment as a home for pauper children. On May 23, 1831, the board of assistant aldermen directed the committee on charity and the almshouse to report at the next meeting the present condition of the almshouse children afflicted with ophthalmia, and the cause. A month later the common council authorized the committee to employ a physician to assist the resident physician in the treatment of these children. He was to receive \$3 for each day that he visited them.

Just at this time the city purchased Blackwell's island, and also three farms in Queens county, located on the East river opposite Blackwell's

island and known as the Long Island farms. A portion of the children having ophthalmia were removed from Bellevue to the island. In July, the commissioners of the almshouse were authorized to remove the convalescent children from here to the Long Island farms, and to transfer from the almshouse to Blackwell's island the residue of the children afflicted with ophthalmia. On July 22, 1831, a committee of the board of assistant aldermen reported that they had visited the children on the island, and found that "their general health was manifestly changed from a sickly hue to a robust appearance."²

A little later, on December 5, 1831, we find the following resolution adopted by the assistant aldermen: "Whereas, several of the children at the Alms House having been afflicted by the disease termed Ophthalma, therefore, Resolved, that it be referred to the Committee of the Alms House to ascertain and report to this Board whether they can be taught any and what useful employments that may render them less burthensome to themselves, and what will be the probable expense."³

In June, 1832, the common council received a communication from the almshouse commissioners, recommending that the children in that establishment be transferred to the Long Island farms, stating that it would be necessary to erect temporary buildings at each of the three farms, and stating also that 120 of the almshouse children had ophthalmia. This recommendation was acted upon, for one of the commissioners, in a letter of resignation dated July 1, 1833, stated that most of the children had been transferred from Bellevue to the Long Island farms, which were originally intended

¹"The picture of New York," 1826, Astor library.

²Proceedings of board of assistant aldermen, 1831.

"for the special benefit of this unoffending, interesting, and numerous class of paupers." The commissioner goes on to state that "soon after the purchase of the farms, in 1831, a man was placed upon them, ostensibly to cut wood in winter, his large family to be supported, and he to have \$2 per day besides."¹ The commissioner complains that, although the man is not qualified to superintend either the farms or the children, he still remains in charge of both. As a consequence, he says, "118 boys dined last Saturday upon dry, hard, boiled salt beef, with dry bread, but no vegetables." He closes: "I would anxiously but respectfully recommend to your honorable bodies that you do consider the case of these poor children." From this time on all of the children, except perhaps those needing hospital care, and the infants who were boarded out, were kept at the Long Island farms. On September 1, 1834, they numbered 680, and 130 were at nurse in the city. The numbers increased, for the commissioners at this time announced the policy of "readily receiving all children who belong to the city and are destitute, and when once within the establishment keeping them under all usual circumstances until they are taught to read and write."² They adopted a rule that girls should not be bound out under the age of ten years, nor boys under the age of twelve, stating that during the previous year eighty children under those ages had been indentured. A question that is still troublesome to all institutions caring for children was thus stated in the report of the almshouse commissioners for 1834:

"The commissioners can bind the children out the day they enter the

almshouse and the parents lose all control over them; but if they remain in the almshouse unbound, the parents or guardians can probably demand them and take them out. Now if they are once abandoned by their parents or friends to the public, and put in the almshouse school, it should be optional with the commissioners to deliver them back to the parents and friends or not. It will be readily perceived that there are many cases in which the taking of the children from school and delivering them back to intemperate parents, perhaps criminal ones, would be the certain destruction of the little education obtained, and to the welfare and morals of the children." The report goes on to state that the Long Island farms are, to a considerable extent, in an uncultivated state, but that they believe the citizens will not regret the purchase when they consider "that the previous abode of these children was within high walls, containing a state prison, county prison, a bridewell, and an almshouse establishment."³

Almost immediately, however, an agitation was begun for the sale of the Long Island farms and the removal of the children to Randall's island, which was purchased by the city in 1835. In the same year a committee of the board of aldermen reported in favor of moving both the children's institutions and the almshouse to Randall's island. Nothing was effected for some years, although the subject was reported upon nearly every year.

The message of the mayor, May 1840, states that there were 900 children in the schools on the Long Island farms, and that 349 children had been bound out during the preceding year. In 1843 plans were adopted by the almshouse com-

missioners to the almshouse institutions Buildings were north of the almshouse, children. They were carried into the Long Island and a large Randall's island. This the children asked the question they should finally decide detached by the island. Each large building almshouse farm island was re-dredged were repaired to the dilapidated wretched Long Island. Here they were which time a new erected for the commissioners to be his intercessors children, before they had reached the age. He then leave the island thirteen years of age. He sparingly the adult paupers criminals from care for and efficient whose character the proprietors April 15, 1845, moved to the institution, a triumphant certainly no commended highly hove

¹ Documents of common council, 1833.

² Documents of common council, 1834.

³ Documents of common council, 1835.

⁴ Report of common council, 1835.

missioners for the removal of both the almshouse and the children's institutions to Blackwell's island. Buildings were to be erected just north of the present site of the almshouse, to accommodate 1,000 children. This plan was not carried into effect, and in 1845 the Long Island farms had been sold, and a large building was erected on Randall's island for the pauper children. This, however, burned before the children were removed to it, and the question again arose as to where they should be located. It was finally decided to erect a series of detached buildings on Randall's island. Early in 1847, however, the large building now occupied by the almshouse for women on Blackwell's island was completed, and the children were removed thither, "owing to the dilapidation of the old and wretched Long Island farms hovels."¹ Here they remained a year, during which time ten brick buildings were erected for them on Randall's island. The commissioner again stated it to be his intention to retain the children, before indenturing them, until they had received a better education. He thought girls should not leave the institution until they were thirteen years, and boys fifteen years of age. He also condemned unsparely the custom of detailing adult paupers, vagrants, and even criminals from the city institutions to care for the children. "Proper and efficient nurses should be hired, whose characters are a guarantee for the propriety of their actions." On April 15, 1848, the children were removed to the Randall's island institution, and the commissioner triumphantly reported, "We can certainly now, after having been incommodeed with miserable and unsightly hovels for many years, boast

with a becoming pride of possessing the most complete, convenient, and elegant establishment for the rearing of young orphans of the city's care known in the world;—here true humanity can fulfill its ennobling mission."² There remained in the Randall's island institutions, December 31, 1848, a total of 1,054 children. There were also 165 children at nurse. During 1849, 514 children were cared for at nurse; of them 50 were adopted, 97 were restored to friends, and 280 died. This was a cholera year, and, commenting on the death rate, the clerk of the outdoor poor department remarks that "The mortality among the children at nurse for the almshouse was awfully fatal and extensive."³ Of the 109 children boarded out at the close of 1849, "about 36" were reported as illegitimate children mostly boarded with their mothers, 27 as foundlings, and 46 as the children of destitute parents. At this time the almshouse was under the control of one commissioner. Among other improvements, he employed an agent to visit the children at nurse, and also those indentured. The report for 1848 contains interesting statements concerning many of the children visited, thus,—"Bridget —, with Michael —, 349 Water St., about seven years; is now fourteen years old; a very industrious girl; reads, writes, and ciphers." "Mary —, with William —, on 27th St., for two and one-half years; is now fourteen years old; education neglected,—promised to attend to it." "James —, with —, 205 Christie St., for two years and one-half; is nine years old; a very good boy."

In 1849 a board of governors succeeded the almshouse commissioner, and to some extent reversed his policy. They were in favor of placing children in families, and believed

¹ Documents of common council, 1847.

² Report of commissioner of almshouse, 1848.

that legislation should be had enabling them to indenture children outside of the state. They stated that while they had been able to supply most of the demand for indenturing, no girls "capable of being put out remained," although there were still a number of boys of suitable age and size.

From then on the history of the Randall's island nurseries is uneventful, until the legislation of 1875, which forbade the city to retain in its institutions healthy children over two years of age. The early reports of the state board of charities and of the state charities aid association contain many unsparing criticisms of the pitiful condition of the children, cared for in part by female prisoners from the workhouse.

The boarding out of infants continued until some date between 1863 and 1866, when they were all returned to the almshouse. In 1866 an infants' department of the almshouse was created, where, the report states, the "foundling infants, hitherto distributed among the wards of the almshouse, and consigned to the mercies of reluctant attendants, have been gathered under the care of a matron and kind and attentive nurses."¹ This was at first called the infants' bureau, and in 1867 the erection of a large new building for its use on Randall's island was begun. During the winter of 1867-68, owing to the overcrowding of the almshouse, the infants' hospital was removed to the newly erected building intended for an inebriate asylum, where it remained until August, 1869, when it removed to its present building on Randall's island. The death rate continued high, however, and the boarding out in Westchester county of the foundling and mother-

less babies was begun in 1871 or 1872.

Philadelphia. Philadelphia continued to occupy the almshouse located at Tenth and Pine streets until about 1835. In 1810, the average number of children supported in the institution was 171, and during the same year 212 children were at nurse out of the house. The rules and regulations for the internal government of the almshouse, adopted December 21, 1821, contained elaborate provisions with regard to the management of the children, and particularly with regard to the conduct of the school in the institution. Among other interesting provisions is the following: "The teacher shall use lenity and kindness to the boys under his care, and in no case inflict corporal punishment." It was also provided that "it shall be the duty of the teacher to attend with his scholars at divine service when in the house, and keep them as much as possible silent and in order, and place them by themselves."

The report of a committee appointed at a town meeting of the citizens of the city and county of Philadelphia, July 23, 1827, to consider the subject of the pauper system of the city and districts and to report remedies for its defects,² throws much light on the condition of the children in the almshouse. Among the questions proposed by this committee to the managers of the almshouse was the following: "Are the children during their stay in the house separated from adults by day and night?" The answer was: "The greater number of the children in the house are separated from the adults at night, but the present buildings are too limited to allow of an arrangement so desirable and necessary during the day."

¹ Report of board of governors of almshouses, 1866.

² Philadelphia, 1827.

Among the by the con of authority i to bind out public charg of the parent "The child ceived into t necessary, clothed at a the public; a suitable ag proper place they are fre their parents of poverty a had been tak lant purpose defeated and lessly expen recommended occupied as dren's asylu buildings er dren's asylu to guard a which the i establishment the board o power to b become pub consent of penses incur defrayed an that they v chargeable a pears from t the report of May 22, 182 dren in the t that during were bound discharged, a returned to p From the quoted above children's as located eith building, or s

¹ History and 1890. Pp. 128-

Among the defects enumerated by the committee was the lack of authority in the board of guardians to bind out children who became public charges, without the consent of the parents. The report stated, "The children of paupers are received into the asylum, nursed when necessary, fed and comfortably clothed at a very great expense to the public; as soon as they arrive at a suitable age to be bound out and proper places are provided for them, they are frequently withdrawn by their parents and return to the haunts of poverty and vice from which they had been taken, and thus the benevolent purposes of the institution are defeated and the public funds uselessly expended." The committee recommended that the buildings occupied as an almshouse and children's asylum be sold and new buildings erected; that "the children's asylum be so constructed as to guard against the diseases to which the inmates of the present establishment are subject," and that the board of guardians be given power to bind out children who become public charges without the consent of parents, unless the expenses incurred for their support be defrayed and a security be given that they will not again become chargeable for two years. It appears from the tables accompanying the report of the committee that, on May 22, 1826, there were 145 children in the children's asylum, and that during the preceding year, 182 were bound out, 51 died, 45 were discharged, 29 eloped, and 522 were returned to parents and relatives.

From the question and answer quoted above it is evident that the children's asylum was at this time located either in the almshouse building, or so near that the children

and the adults were not kept apart by day. We are informed, however, that at some date prior to 1835 the children's asylum was located on Fifth, between Pine and Federal streets.¹ This would be some five blocks distant from the main almshouse. It is possible, though not probable, that the children's asylum referred to in the report of the committee of 1827 was not in nor adjacent to the almshouse, but was already located in the building at Fifth and Pine streets. Force is given to this suggestion by the statement in the report of the committee of 1827 that "the average number of children in the house from April, 1820, to May, 1826, was 154," and that "the expenses of the institution from its commencement to May, 1826, exclusive of cost of house and lot and new additional buildings, amounted to \$44,508.41." The evidence is not conclusive as to whether the children's asylum as an institution separate from the almshouse and located some blocks distant, was established in 1820 or even at some earlier date, or as late as 1828. We do know, however, that in 1835 the children's asylum and the almshouse were sold, and both children and adults were removed to the new buildings located in the town of Blockley (now part of Philadelphia), and known henceforth as the Blockley almshouse. The children were placed in the east end of the northwestern range of buildings.

From Dr. Alfred Stillé's reminiscences of the Philadelphia hospital we learn something of the condition of the children in this institution. Dr. Stillé was a resident physician of the institution in its earliest days, and had special charge of the children's asylum. He says, "A hun-

¹ History and reminiscences of the Philadelphia almshouse and hospital. Philadelphia, 1890. Pp. 128-9.

dred or more children were sheltered there on their way to the early grave to which most of them were destined. Illegitimate and other outcasts formed the majority, and ophthalmia, that curse of children's asylums, made of them a sore-eyed, puny group most pitiable to see. I soon became convinced of the causes that produced the crippling and mortality of these outcasts and waifs. I pointed out to the committee of the board how the disease was disseminated by the children washing in the same basins and using the same towels, and, it was maintained, by their having no shady places for exercise in the open air, and also by the insufficient food permitted them. . . But, of course, the committee of the children's asylum and the guardians knew better than I, and, at the time at least, nothing was done to correct this wrong.¹

So far as we can ascertain, the destitute children supported by the city of Philadelphia remained in Blockley almshouse until the passage of the children's law of 1883.

Boston. The city of Boston, which had built an almshouse in 1800, soon found it outgrown, and in 1822 a new structure was completed in South Boston, known as the house of industry. This institution (both almshouse and prison, and receiving both children and adults) was placed under the charge of a body called the board of directors of the house of industry. Controversy arising between this body and the overseers of the poor, the functions of the overseers were by statute limited to the distribution of outdoor relief, and of certain trust funds. The custody of the pauper children of the almshouse was vested henceforth in the directors of the house of industry. Although the

city established a reform school for juvenile offenders in 1826 (located, unfortunately, in a portion of the buildings of the house of correction for adult offenders), no separate provision for pauper children was made until much later. The need of removing the children from adult paupers was, however, realized by the directors of the house of industry, for in 1833 their annual report states that "In closing these remarks the directors would respectfully urge the necessity of removing the children from the adult paupers. Experience has shown that children brought up and indentured from almshouses often feel toward it a filial regard, and having been accustomed to see grown persons supported there for no other reason than that they are addicted to idleness and intemperance, again resort to it themselves rather than encounter the common difficulties of life." The report for 1834 speaks of ten children at the almshouse likely to remain permanent paupers (on account of idiocy, etc.), and 122 who will probably be indentured as they arrive at a suitable age, or be discharged to parents and friends, should they become able to assume their support. In the same year, 1834, the city council established at the house of industry a building known as the "children's asylum." The overseers of the poor appropriated the income from one of the principal trust funds under their care, the Boylston education fund, to the support of certain children in this institution, which henceforth was known as the Boylston school, or Boylston asylum, though remaining a part of the house of industry.

In 1837 the house of reformation (juvenile reformatory) was transferred to a building erected, against the protest of the managers, near

the house of industry. It a control separa other institut city council n house of indu the control of of the latter i tute boys w Boylston sch transferred to of reformati under the o stitution, th quite separa thus made pauper chil from the ad inals, but in t juvenile offens In 1849, a erected on D were removed house of indu adult paupers except the b age who rema house of re offenders in S stitution also island in 18 pauper child buildings on port of 1853 on Deer island 70 girls and s other 116 old also 131 boys or juvenile pa of reformatio total of 317 i The next ye were reported 59 "at nurse." No fur curred until a of the first th ury, therefore its destitute a in buildings were under th

¹ *Ibid.* Pp. 58.

the house of correction and house of industry. It was at this time under a control separate from that of any other institution, but in 1841 the city council made it a part of the house of industry, placing it under the control of the board of directors of the latter institution. The destitute boys who had been in the Boylston school or asylum, were transferred to a wing of the house of reformation building, and placed under the officers of the latter institution, though they were kept "quite separate." Provision was thus made for a portion of the pauper children somewhat apart from the adult paupers and criminals, but in the same building with juvenile offenders.

In 1849, a large building was erected on Deer island, and thither were removed the inmates of the house of industry,—adult prisoners, adult paupers, and juvenile paupers, except the boys over six years of age who remained in one wing of the house of reformation for juvenile offenders in South Boston. This institution also was removed to Deer island in 1858. Presumably the pauper children were in separate buildings on Deer island, for the report of 1853 speaks of two schools on Deer island, in one of which were 70 girls and small boys, and in the other 116 older boys. There were also 131 boys in the Boylston school, or juvenile pauper wing of the house of reformation building, making a total of 317 indoor juvenile paupers. The next year, 1854, 214 children were reported at Deer island, and 59 "at nurse."

No further radical changes occurred until after 1875. At the close of the first three-quarters of a century, therefore, Boston provided for its destitute and neglected children in buildings on Deer island which were under the control of the alms-

house authorities, and practically formed a part of that institution.

The history of the Charleston orphan house, a strictly municipal institution, from 1790 to the present, has been in every way creditable to that city. The institution still stands on the site of the original building erected in 1794. It has received a number of bequests and donations from private citizens, so that about half of its present income is derived from this source, and half from the city treasury. The first kindergarten in Charleston was established at the orphan house in 1877. The government of the institution is vested in ten commissioners appointed by the city council.

Notwithstanding the success of the Charleston orphan house, few persons, if any, will dissent from the statement that the direct care of destitute children by American municipalities prior to 1875 was as a rule, a pitiful failure.

In the meantime, the state of Massachusetts, which, since about 1793, had reimbursed the various towns and cities for the care of the "unsettled poor," had made its own provision for this class by establishing, in 1851-52, three state almshouses, at Tewksbury, Bridgewater, and Monson. At each of these, children, as well as adults, were received. In 1855, an act was passed requiring the removal of all children from Bridgewater and Tewksbury to Monson, but through the influence of the superintendents of the three institutions it was repealed the next year. By 1858 the population of these three institutions exceeded 2,500, of whom more than half were children. This population was described by the board of state charities as "a motley collection of broken-backed,

lame-legged, sore-eyed, helpless, and infirm human beings, with scarcely an adult that is able in body and mind." We are informed that the children were packed like sardines in double cradles; were cared for by pauper inmates, and were indentured to people whose credentials could hardly have received a proper investigation at the hands of the overworked house officials. In 1863 the board of state charities was established, and was authorized to transfer inmates of any state almshouse to any other state almshouse. One of its first acts, in 1864, was to transfer the children from Bridgewater and Tewksbury to Monson. Subsequently, in 1866, the Monson institution was declared to be the state primary school, and thereafter the children were not to be designated as paupers. This was the first state institution for destitute children in the United States. In 1872 the almshouse department at Monson was abolished, though many adult paupers remained in the state primary school as helpers. The board of state charities engaged an agent to visit the children who had been indentured from the state almshouses and the state reform schools. This led to the establishment, in 1869, of a state visiting agency, to visit all children placed out from state institutions, and to visit and report upon the homes of applicants for children. The visiting agency was independent of any other state body, its executive officer being appointed by the governor, but it reported to the board of state charities. It was also the duty of the visiting agent to attend trials of juvenile offenders, and, having investigated the circumstances, to advise the magistrates whether the children should be committed to a reform school, or to the

custody of the board of state charities, by it to be placed in their own, or some other families, or temporarily in the state primary school at Monson, later on to be placed in a family, or if they proved unmanageable, transferred to a reform school. Thus early were the essential features of flexibility and transfer from one institution to another, or to a family, according to the developments of the individual child, secured. By 1875, Massachusetts, so far as its state charges were concerned, had separated its juvenile from its adult paupers, and had established an adequate system of supervision of indentured children.

Meanwhile, almshouses had been established by many smaller cities, and in some states by counties or towns. Perhaps the most complete statement of the methods of public care of the poor in the earlier part of the century is contained in the report of an investigation, made by the then secretary of the state of New York, Hon. J. V. N. Yates, in 1823.¹ This report includes not only a statement of the condition of the poor in each county and town in New York, but also a detailed report from nearly every other state in the Union. The report from Brooklyn showed that there were thirteen boys and seven girls in the almshouse, and also thirteen men and twenty-one women. The training received by the children is perhaps suggested by the report of the Brooklyn official: "It is indispensable that the children should be educated, but in some almshouses (as it is in ours at present) there may be none

¹ Assembly journal, 1824. Pp. 386-400. Appendix published separately in assembly documents.

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able to teach the children; and on account of disorders incident to public places, it would be improper to send them to the public district school; the children must remain uneducated or some provision must be made to hire a teacher. Would it not be right to give the almshouse a particular demand on the school fund?" In Albany, of 126 paupers in the almshouse in 1823, forty-six were children under the age of seven years.

The general conclusion reached by Mr. Yates was that outdoor relief was harmful, and that the building of county almshouses would solve most of the difficulties connected with public relief. The report stated that "The education and morals of the children of paupers (except in almshouses) are almost wholly neglected. They grow up in filth, idleness, and disease, and many become early candidates for the prison or the grave. The evidence on this head is too voluminous for reference" (page 393).

Again, in summing up the situation, the report states: "Most of the children of paupers out of an almshouse are not only brought up in ignorance and idleness, but their health is precarious, and they frequently die prematurely. The reverse is the case in an almshouse. Their health and morals are alike improved and secured, and besides they receive an education to fit them for future usefulness" (page 81).

It was recommended that in every county there should be established one or more houses of employment,

in which paupers were to be maintained and employed, and their children to be carefully instructed, and at suitable ages to be put out to some useful business or trade (page 395).

The report received favorable consideration, and led to the passage of the law of 1824, which established the county almshouse system in New York.

The rapidly developing central and western states generally adopted systems of poor relief similar to those of New York and Pennsylvania, though the contract and farming-out plans seem to have found small place in those states. The town overseers generally were authorized to give temporary outdoor relief, but permanent outdoor relief, if given, and the almshouses, were administered by the county authorities.

It gradually became evident to thoughtful observers that the high hopes of Secretary Yates, expressed in his otherwise admirable report of 1824, that in almshouses the children of paupers would be trained and taught to be useful, and thus become desirable members of society, were not to be fulfilled. Miss Dorothea Dix, in her report of her visitation of the almshouses of New York in 1844, said: "They do not guard against the indiscriminate association of the children with the adult poor. The education of these children, with rare exceptions, is conducted on a very defective plan. The almshouse schools, so far as I have learned from frequent inquiries, are not inspected

by official persons, who visit and examine the other schools of the county."

In 1856, a select committee appointed by the New York senate made a careful report on the public charities of that state. The condition of the almshouses generally was unsparingly condemned, and especially their harmful effects upon the children. "The committee are forced to say that it is a great public reproach that they (the children) should be permitted to remain in the poorhouses. As they are now mismanaged, they are for the young the worst possible nurseries." From this time on, the conviction slowly spread that poorhouses were not good places for children to grow up in. In the fullness of time, almost twenty years after the above report was submitted by the senate committee, legislation began to be secured prohibiting the retention of children in almshouses.

Indenture. The indenture system was a very important part of the provision for destitute children during the first three-quarters of the century. The statutes of many states contained elaborate provisions with regard to the indenturing of children. Some of these are interesting. The Massachusetts act of 1793 directed that in indentures "Provision shall be made for instructing the male children to read, write, and cipher," and "For such other instruction, benefit, and allowance either within or at the end of the term, as to the overseers may seem fit and reasonable,"—a degree

of flexibility and adaptiveness to individual cases that has sometimes been lacking in more modern legislation. In Maryland in 1793 an act was passed "For the better regulation of apprentices," indicating that there had been earlier legislation upon the subject. The preamble recited "Whereas, it has been found by experience that poor children, orphans, and illegitimate for want of some efficient system have been left destitute of support and have become useless or depraved members of society; And, Whereas it would greatly conduce to the good of the public in general and of such children in particular that necessary instruction in trades and useful arts should be afforded them; Therefore, etc." The justices of the orphans' courts were authorized to bind out orphans, "and such children as are suffering through the extreme indigence or poverty of their parents, also the children of beggars, and also illegitimate children, and the children of persons out of this state where a sufficient sustenance is not afforded." Trustees of the poor in the various counties were authorized to bind out children under their care in the poorhouses, preference being given to tradesmen and mechanics. In 1826, the act was amended so as to authorize the binding out of children who were found begging upon the streets of the city of Baltimore. The indenture system was authorized by law in the territory of Indiana in 1807. The annual message of the mayor of the city of New York for the

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The old-fashioned indenture or apprentice system passed largely into disuse, if not into disrepute, by 1875. It is clearly not in harmony with the spirit of these later times to "bind" any one to serve another person for a definite term of years. The bound child is often alluded to as typifying loneliness, neglect, overwork, and a consciousness of being held in low esteem.

It is probable, however, that as the apprentice system as a whole, passed away with the profound changes that occurred in industrial conditions, the indenturing of children also underwent a change. The value of the instruction received from the "masters" became less and the value of the services rendered by the children increased. In its worst forms, and especially in some localities, certain features of the indenture

system, particularly the recapture of apprentices who ran away, painfully reminded one of human slavery. In fact, it has been seriously suggested that by the adoption of the constitutional amendment in 1865, forbidding "involuntary servitude," the indenture system became unconstitutional. In the early part of the century however, when learning a trade was a matter of the highest importance, the system was undoubtedly something quite different from what it became in later years. Though there were doubtless many cases of hardship from exacting or cruel masters, it is likely that the indentured children, as a whole, were more fortunate than those maintained by public outdoor relief or in almshouses. Miss Mary E. Wilkins, in a collection of stories for children, tells a pretty story of a bound girl who was afterwards adopted, and gives an authentic copy of an indenture paper executed in Boston in 1753.¹

¹ "The pot of gold." Boston, 189—.

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